A STUDY OF SOME ASPECTS OF SCHOOL GUIDANCE IN MEETING THE DEMANDS OF CONTEMPORARY WESTERN SOCIETY

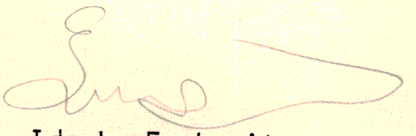
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degree of Master of Social Science
in the Department of Sociology,
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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY.

I hereby declare that the whole of this dissertation, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own original work and that it has not been submitted for any degree in any other university.



Ida L. Ezekowitz
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January 1981.

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Preface.

The purpose of this dissertation is to suggest that progress in education cannot succeed unless the school system includes within its structure a service to the school population that takes cognisance of the pupil's total environment.

A review of the literature has revealed that the child comes into contact with many persons outside the immediate family: with relatives, neighbours and local children. When he goes to school he is supervised by teachers and other adults and he becomes a member of a competitive society in which maladjustment is increasingly possible.

The individual who goes through life needing no assistance from some one outside himself is indeed rare. Counselling, whether it be actively solicited or indirectly received, is a process most people need during the course of a lifetime.

In the school environment, pupils can be identified on a developmental continuum, from those needing relatively little direct interventative counselling to those needing some type of specific therapy to help them move through certain developmental stages.

There are three main aspects of a school counselling service. The first two are educational and vocational, the third is personal counselling. The assumption is that secondary school pupils who receive counselling, which provides meaningful information and which sets into motion self-exploration and decision-making processes will be more advantaged than those who do not receive this service.

The other aspect of the school counselling service deals with the multi-factorial range of possible causes that can

be at the root of poor academic progress. This is expressed in low examination marks, behaviour which falls short of the norms required in the school system, or poor health which can have a psychosomatic origin, due to factors with which the pupil cannot cope.

It is in these and other circumstances that the adolescent pupil requires a confidant on the school staff, to whom he can unburden himself and find emotional relief. He needs counselling towards a solution or towards an acceptance of the position, which cannot be changed. He needs to be helped to live with and progress despite the problem.

The advantages of the technological society, in many parts of the world today, appear to have been attained at a high cost for the adolescent population.

Changes in human lifestyle and behaviour patterns have introduced complications in human relationships and personal security.

Society is forever changing. The Industrial Revolution which took several centuries (and is still ongoing) has led to sweeping changes which occur from one generation to the next. New inventions are introduced but for the people who use them, they evoke change in living habits, which have far-reaching sociological and psychological consequences for the individual.

This is an age of unparalleled technical advances, but this is also an age where the social and health problems of adolescence have to be included among the top priorities of thinking people.

This is an age where the media, radio, cinema and television provide the adolescent of today with a much wider range of behaviour patterns, of values and beliefs, to choose from and

be influenced by, than was ever possible in previous generations. The viewing of violence on television by children has been found by American investigators to be a contributing factor to violence in society. These media influence adolescents at this crucial period, when habit formation has a direct bearing on health and future lifestyle.

In this, the last quarter of the twentieth century, the nuclear family has become the victim of change and external pressures. The school, the institution in society on which the family depends to make its members fit to play their role in society, through education, requires to give more than just academic teaching to its inmates.

As secondary schools have become more organized around the concept of individual growth and development, services which assist the pupil in making the best adjustment to his situation becomes of major importance.

The Sociology of Education, as an application of the discipline of Sociology, sets out to analyse the connection between education and society, it is from this perspective that the present dissertation is put forward.

PART I.

CHAPTER ONE.

THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF THIS WORK IN THE LIGHT OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION.

While the overall concern of this dissertation is the functioning of an adequate Guidance and Counselling service, catering for the needs of secondary school pupils in a world of rapid change, the intention of this introduction is to trace the history and development of the subject called the Sociology of Education from which perspective this dissertation is presented. This is broadly a library study, supplemented by information from a survey of the Guidance and Counselling service in secondary schools for Whites in the four Provinces of the Republic of South Africa. This is followed by an investigation of the Guidance and Counselling service of twelve secondary schools in Natal. Finally, a questionnaire was submitted to first year students of the University of Natal and the Natal Technikon in 1980. An analysis is given of the 910 responses to the questionnaire. In addition case studies are presented which were done while counselling adolescents in a secondary school between 1971-1974.

1.1 The Reasons for a Framework.

In studying an area of society, most sociologists according to Ashley, Cohen and Slatter (1969; 10) find it necessary to postulate some type of framework for the analysis and explanation of the data they collect. These writers further maintain that the view that any society can be seen as a social system, is an attempt to give the ever increasing amount of information some coherence and systemisation. This enables sociologists to develop a working model of society on the conceptual level.

> *"They are then able to classify and explain the information they gather and obtain an increased understanding of human action".* (Ashley, Cohen and Slatter 1969: 11).

Wallace (1971) in his work, *The Logic of Science in Sociology* puts forward the hypothetico-deductive paradigm in which

it is assumed that such an approach is essential.[1)]

In the present study the school system is viewed as part of the educational institutions of western society. It is from the perspective of the theory and methodology of the Sociology of Education that the research is presented. It therefore seems necessary to clarify the field of the Sociology of Education at the beginning of the study. The history and development of the Sociology of Education is traced, in order to demarcate the frame of reference within which this study on counselling has been conducted.

1.2 The History and Development of the Sociology of Education.

Musgrave explains the derivation of the term "Sociology of Education" as follows. He maintains that:

> *"Sociology is a social science, this implies that sociology is an attempt to build up a set of logical and consistent theories about the society in which we live ... The subject matter of sociology includes the institutions which mark our society; such as the family, the class system and the important institution in a modern society is the educational system. The increasing concern with education has led to a specialism within the larger field of sociology, which deals with the sociology of education. In this branch of the subject, a study is made of the relationship between education and society as a whole. ..."* (1979; 1)

Floud and Halsey (1958) claim a recognisable history for the Sociology of Education, from the appearance of Ward's *Dynamic Sociology* in 1883. In this work Ward argued against Spencer's pessimistic view of social studies and urged that education could be an essential force for progress. Brookover and Erikson (1975) in their account of the historical background of the Sociology of Education maintain that:

> *"One of the predominant early themes in the Sociological study of education, was that sociology should provide a basis for organising education in such a manner that social*

problems would be resolved and social progress would be attained". Brookover and Erikson 1975; 6).

These authors maintain that the use of sociology to assist education in solving social problems is referred to as an educational sociology orientation or theme, and was in a large part initiated by one of the early leaders of Sociology in the United States, Lester F. Ward in 1883.

According to Ashley, Cohen and Slatter (1969; 1), Educational Sociology from the early part of this century was being offered as a subject in a number of colleges and universities in the United States. These writers are of the opinion that Educational Sociology had developed neither a sound theoretical framework nor a rigorous methodology, but was more of an educational discipline than a sociological one. The key factor concerning Educational Sociology was that it attempted to introduce a moral element into the discipline based on a belief then current, that social science, could provide the guidelines for the aims and values of education.

From the beginning, therefore, the discipline was associated with human betterment, as indeed was a great deal of early American sociology. Floud and Halsey (1958; 165) noted however,

"that this was to prove a doubtful blessing for the disciplined development of the field".

1.3 Debate on the Early Development of the Sociology of Education.

Gerald Bernbaum (1977; 17) in his efforts to trace the development of the Sociology of Education, is in agreement with Floud and Halsey that it was the perspectives of James, Pierce and Dewey, which:

"openly injected normative elements into the study of education at a time when a great deal of the work was suffering from methodological differences".

John Dewey (1859-1952) held the firm conviction that traditional methods of schooling were futile and fruitless and that the human contacts of everyday life provide unlimited natural dynamic learning situations. He wrote *The School and Society* (1896). The turn of the century saw the publication of *The Elementary School Record* and in 1902 *The Child and the Curriculum*. His research according to Curtis and Boultwood (1953),

> *"stimulated educational research through-out the western world".*

As Professor of Philosophy at Columbia University from 1904, Dewey wrote prolifically on educational psychology and sociology, including *How we Think* (1910), *Schools of Tomorrow* (1915), and *Democracy and Education* (1916). The latter was a

> *"masterpiece of strategy, timed to impinge on American political consciousness just when it was sensitized by the conflict in attitudes towards the European war".*
> (Curtis and Boultwood 1953; 467).

This American experience in the discipline, had its parallels in Germany and in Britain. The early development of the subject was dominated by various kinds of socialist ideologies. In the 1930s the London School of Economics undertook a systematic study of Education. Its main interest was to assess the part played by education,

> *"in producing and perpetuating class differences and in promoting social mobility".* cited by Floud and Halsey (1958; 166).

Floud and Halsey point out that by 1945 in both Britain and the United States most of the work had

> *"its normative orientations unimpaired".* (*Ibid* 1958; 167)

1.3.1. Socialist Perspective.

Floud and Halsey (1958) also maintain that a great deal of the subject, especially the choice of research projects, was strongly

influenced by socialist beliefs. What is worthy of note in this Introduction is that the emerging "Sociology of Education", as it had developed in Britain and the United States had been influenced by ideological considerations. According to the writers who have described this period, (e.g. Olive Banks (1968), Brookover and Erikson (1975), Parelius and Parelius (1971), Gerald Bernbaum (1977) et.al.) the approaches of the sociologist working in the field of education were progressive and reformist, but the work lacked any strict or coherent theoretical basis.

1.3.2. Structural-Functionalist Perspective.

Nevertheless by the 1950s the sociologists working in the field of education, had accepted in some form the theoretical perspective of the increasingly dominant structural-functional school. It is generally agreed among sociologists including Talcott Parsons (1957), Brookover (1977), Erikson (1977), Parelius and Parelius (1978), and Bernbaum (1977), that Emile Durkhein in the nineteenth century first clearly indicated the need for a sociological approach to the study of education. He considered education

> *"to be something essentially social in character in its origins and its function and as a result the theory of education relates more clearly to sociology, than to any other science".* (Emile Durkheim cited by Brookover 1975; 5).

Durkheim viewed education as a sociologist. He made a sharp distinction between the educator and the social scientist. He thought the educator should be occupied with bringing about changes in the educational system. On the other hand, he saw the sociologist as an analyst of human behaviour and considered it the Sociologist's function to explain current social phenomena.

In order to better explain the social phenomena of education, Durkheim made explicit the following areas, which he considered appropriate for sociologists:

1. Identification of the relationship between education and social and cultural change;

2. Identification of the current "social facts" of education and their sociological function;

3. Cross cultural and comparative research in various types of educational systems; and

4. Investigation of the class room and school as an ongoing social system".*

According to Brookover (1975, 5) due to the lack of scientific sophistication and the nature of human concerns during Durkheim's time, it was many years before sociologists accepted his research direction, despite the clarity of his position.

Commenting on Durkheim, Olive Banks (1968; 10) acknowledges that the traditional conceptual framework in the subject is that of functionalism and derives primarily from Durkheim's writings. The functionalist approach as Durkheim used it, was to seek for the social function performed by an institution, in this case education, in the promotion and maintenance of social cohesion and social unity. Olive Banks is of opinion that the special task of education was defined by Durkheim,

"as the methodical socialization of the young generation". (1956; 71)

By this Durkheim meant the development in the child of certain values and certain intellectual and physcial skills which are demanded by both the political society as a whole and the milieu for which he is specifically destined. Durkheim was of the opinion that,

"only in this way could the cohesion and survival of the society be assured". Durkheim (reprinted 1956; 71).

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* Source: Emile Durkheim *'Education and Sociology'*, cited by Brookover (1975; 5).

** Source: Emile Durkheim *'Education and Sociology'*, cited by Olive Banks (1968; 10).

Yet as Floud and Halsey (1958) have pointed out, structural functionalism, although to some extent a theory applicable to all societies, however simple, has certain methodological faults, which have contributed to the weakness of Educational Sociology:

> *"The structural functionalist is preoccupied with social intergration based on shared values - that is, with consensus - and he conducts his analysis solely in terms of the motivated actions of individuals".* Floud and Halsey (1958) cited by Banks (1968; 12).

These authors are of opinion that as far as education is concerned, it is too readily viewed as a means of motivating individuals to behave in ways appropriate to maintain the society in a state of equilibrium. They further maintain that this is a difficult notion to apply to developed, especially industrialized societies, because

> *"they are dominated by social change and "consensus" and "integration" can only be very loosely conceived in regard to them".* Floud and Halsey (1958) cited by Banks (1968; 12).

Bernbaum (1977) is also of the opinion that the adoption of the structural-functionalist perspectives, weakened sociologists' ability to explain social change and has exaggerated the penetration of sociological research into education, by

> *"normative perspectives derived from the American pragmatists and the European socialists".* (Bernbaum 1977; 19).

The reason for this is that the dominant ethos of education has been one of improvement and therefore of change, both at an individual and societal level.

1.3.3. Floud and Halsey's Critique of Educational Sociology.

Floud and Halsey in 1958 offered a systematic critique of their subject, Educational Sociology. The two main points they made concerned the influence of stuctural-functionalist perspectives upon

the developing Sociology of Education and the association of the subject with normative judgements and political ideologies of educationalists. They urged that a more detailed study of educational institutions was required. According to Bernbaum's discussion on their review of the development of the then Educational Sociology, Floud and Halsey emphasized the ways in which studies of educational wastage were one-sided, concentrating too much on home background and family environment, without asking sufficient questions about

> *"the assumptions, values and aims embodied in the school organization".*

Floud and Halsey concluded

> *"the historically determined aims and organization of these institutions, (schools and colleges) and the tacit changes they have undergone must be understood".*
> Floud and Halsey (1958) cited by Bernbaum (1977; 19).

Bernbaum points out that Floud and Halsey understood the influences of the setting of the discipline and the specific qualities of its growth in the context of the study of education. Thus Floud and Halsey were in the position to discuss the debate in the United States, concerning the nature of 'educational sociology'.

This debate also took place in post-war England, where the overt social function of education was egilatarian.

1.3.4. Michael Young's View of Educational Sociology.

Young, writing in 1971 about this period maintained that much British Sociology in the late fifties and Educational Sociology in particular, drew its ideological perspective from Fabian Socialism and its methodology from the demographic tradition of Booth and Rowntree (1933). The latter broadened the notion of poverty, from lack of income to lack of education, which was seen as a significant part of working-class life chances. What is of importance is that

these studies and those by researchers such as Douglas and Plowden (1964) which followed, was their concern for increasing equality of opportunity focussed primarily on the characteristics of:

1. The Failures in the school system;
2. The Early Leavers; and
3. The Drop-outs.

Douglas and Plowden concluded that working-class school failures justified reformist social policies. This led to research on "class structure as a factor in educational success" and also studies on "social class and educational opportunities", Young (1971; 25). Critics of this period maintain that this research did not go deep enough. It was done too superficially to provide the answers, e.g. investigators did not look at the curriculum content as a cause of failure. This period was followed by the early research done by Basil Bernstein. His research provided an explanation for working-class achievement within the educational system. In this way social class was taken into the educational context. It is from Bernbaum (1977; 40) that a description of Bernstein's work during this period is obtained. Bernstein encouraged the notion of the child, as a victim of the process of socialization. Bernstein's work was severely criticized by many who argued that he had a deficit model of the working-class. He was accused of viewing the working-class from a middle-class perspective.

1.3.5. The End of "Educational Sociology".

It was at this stage that sociologists dissatisfied with "educational sociology" being associated with the normative judgements and political ideologies of educationalists, decided to end the close co-operation between sociologists and educators. Donald A. Hansen (1967) who wrote *The Uncomfortable Relationship of Sociology and Education* argued that

> *"Sociologists regarded the subject as an applied field, theoretically fragmented and devoid of research methods".*
> (cited by Parelius and Parelius 1978; 2)

Educationalists also became disillusioned with Educational Sociology. This has been stated by Brookover and Erikson (1975), and Parelius and Parelius (1978).

In time Educational Sociology fell into disrepute, Educators and Sociologists both turned inward to develop their own unique body of theory and research.

> *"Educational Sociology became a historical phenomenon. Its passing was marked officially in 1963, when the Journal of Educational Sociology, became the Journal of the Sociology of Education".* (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 2)

This event concluded the first stage of the development in the Sociology of Education, when *Educational Sociology* was relegated to the past and *Sociology of Education* was the term used for research in Education by Sociologists.

1.4 The Sociology of Education.

The development of the Sociology of Education will now be considered.

Ashley, Cohen and Slatter (1969; 9) in an effort to clarify the term Sociology of Education maintain that the term Sociology of Education is part of the attempt to throw off the tradition of moral commitment and to bring the discipline into line with the rest of sociology. This involves the study of educational institutions, using theoretical models and methodological techniques, developed by Sociologists.

Hansen suggested that the two terms be retained, Educational Sociology for the pursuit of the normative theory of education and research, and Sociology of Education for the pursuit of empirical theory and research (1967; 22).

This suggestion was not generally accepted but it does seem important to retain some of the moral concerns of the educational sociologist, and do not limit the study of the sociology of education to studying only empirical problems. Education is ultimately concerned with the well-being of a society and the teacher at least at the school level, has a particular moral responsibility.

It is now necessary to consider three aspects of the Sociology of Education as these have emerged in the development of the subject.

The first aspect is Theory in the Sociology of Education; the second is the Methodology in use by the Sociology of Education; the third aspect is a brief consideration of the research done in the Sociology of Education. Finally, there will be reference to the contemporary debate, concerning research in the Sociology of Education which links up with the sociology of knowledge.

1.4.1. Theory in the Sociology of Education.

1.4.1.1. Introduction.

In their work published in 1978 Parelius and Parelius maintain that there are two conceptual paradigms used in the Sociology of Education. They are referred to as the Consensus Theory and the Conflict Theory. Historically the consensus approach has been dominant not only in the sociological study of education, but in all areas of Sociology. The writers further state that,

> *"recently there has been an outpouring of work using the conflict perspective with a renewed appreciation of its usefulness.* (1978; 3)

It must be mentioned however that many sociologists use elements of both theoretical perspectives in their work. The consensus and conflict theorists offer alternative interpretations of the forces which bind societies together and the role of educational institutions

in society. In an account of this nature it is only possible to give a very brief description of these theories.

1.4.1.2. Consensus Theory.

Consensus theorists are of opinion that societies cannot survive, unless their members share at least some common set of perceptions, attitudes and values. They stress the benefits and interests that are shared and give less attention to those beliefs and interests on which we differ. They emphasize the contribution which each part of society makes to the survival of the whole. According to Parelius, there is disagreement as to whether these parts are best thought of as social institutions, patterns of social behaviour, social roles or some other type of unit.

Consensus theorists stress that the various parts of society, however they are defined are integrated with each other, e.g. a change which occurs in one part of society, will affect all the others.

Consensus theorists acknowledge that some social change is inevitable. Events may occur outside a particular society, that impinge on it and force it to change in response. Nevertheless, consensus theorists stress the forces that keep societies relatively stable, rather than those that press for radical and abrupt change. They point to the persistence of basic institutions, e.g. The Family and to similarities in the values and beliefs of generations. This they maintain is evidence of how slowly societies actually change.

Consensus theorists point out that it is easier to achieve consensus in small folk societies, than in large modern industrial states. They maintain that in any society modern or folk there is,

> *"a shared set of abstract and complex assumptions about the world without which social life would be impossible ... This consensus is achieved through socialization in modern societies, the function of socialization is primarily*

performed by the family and the schools". (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 5)

Critics of consensus theorists maintain that they over-emphasize similarities among people and ignore the diversity of interests, values and beliefs that exist in pluralistic societies.

Durkheim's View of Consensus Theory.

Durkheim believed that complex societies were held together by the mutual interdependence of their members. He was of the opinion that we are all born into society as asocial beings. He posed the question: How do we transform each new generation of asocial infants into responsible adults? The answer for Durkheim was through moral education. For Durkheim, moral education consists of socialization. But how is society to accomplish such socialization? Durkheim appreciated the role of the Family and the Church in socialization, but for Durkheim the main mechanism was the schools.

"They could help us overcome our initial egoism and teach us discipline and self-control and could encourage us to adopt the fundamental principles of our society as our own". (Durkheim op.cit. 89)

Comment.

Parelius maintains that it is easy to see the ideas of the consensus theory in Durkheim's work on Education. It was indeed his theoretical framework. He emphasized the integration of society, the interdependence of its parts, the functions that are necessary for its survival. He dealt with conflict but gave more attention to consensus.

1.4.1.3. The View of Talcott Parsons on the Consensus Theory.

Talcott Parsons is the most eminent contemporary theorist of the consensus school. Most of his work analyzes larger social systems, but in his essay *The School Class as a Social System* he applies the

consensus mode of analysis which is a part of the structural functional approach to the classroom. The discussion begins with definitions of two major functions of the school class, socialization and selection. Both Durkheim and Talcott Parsons are structural functionalists. Parsons' belief that schools reward children on the basis of achievement is central to his larger view of the integration of educational and economic systems in modern societies. He argues that in modern societies people must be allocated to occupational slots according to their ability in those slots. Expertise is essential and is making use of whatever talent exists in the population. In less complex societies allocation to occupational and other positions is usually based on criteria other than achievement, e.g. sex, might determine adult role.

Parsons (op.cit.) argues that there is general agreement throughout our society that allocation should be based on achievement. Because of this agreement or consensus, teachers, administrators, parents and the public at large understand what is being done in the schools and are basically supportive of them. It was to promote the moral and intellectual requirements of the school and society, that counselling and guidance services were introduced into schools in Western society during the first quarter of this century.

For Parsons then, the basic functions of education are socialization and selection. Through these two processes, the schools provide society with individuals well qualified for the roles they will fulfill. Parsons' theory of consensus does not provide for the considerable amount of controversy which surrounds educational goals and methods in contemporary society. Nor does he deal with empirical data, which suggests alternative ideas.

> *"His analysis of the internal consensus of the classroom does not adequately account for the factionalization, hostility and even occasional violence we see there".*
> (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 11)

1.4.1.4. The Conflict Theory.

The other basic theoretical approach applicable to the Sociology of Education is that which centres on conflict. The key concepts are conflict change and coercion.

The following discussion draws heavily from Dahrendorf's *Class and Conflict in Industrial Society*, as cited by Parelius and Parelius (1978; 11,12).

Conflict theorists emphasize that social institutions and groups usually work at cross purposes to each other. The interests of those in power are sharply incompatible with the interests of those who are subordinate. Conflict is pervasive, as each group struggles for dominance. Conflict may be muted or violent, and implies lack of agreement on goals.

The continuous power struggles between groups result in a state of constant flux. Calm and stability occur, but are interspersed with periods of rapid *change* and upheaval. Riot, rebellion and revolution may result. Coercion occurs whenever one particular group consolidates sufficient power. The less powerful are coerced into co-operation. A period of temporary stability and social order, result. This coercion is the result not merely of the use of force, but through propaganda and indoctrination, e.g. a myth of the divine right of Kings might be promulgated to legitimize an oppressive monarchy.

The writings of Samuel Bowles (1972) provide an example of the application of the conflict model to contemporary educational institutions, especially those in the United States. According to Parelius,

> *"The heart of Bowles' argument is that the rise of public education in the U.S.A. occurred along with, and as a consequence of, advancing capitalism".* (1978; 12)

The schools could provide the capitalist economy with a ready, willing and able supply of workers. Bowles argues that it was for these reasons that a system of mass education was finally established in the United States. It would appear that Bowles omits the fact that educational institutions vary, and not all are there for the purpose of 'big business'. There are significant variations in the educational system of the United States of America.

Waller (1932) saw the school as a coercive institution. At the top are the teachers, given their authority by the community, outside the school. At the bottom are the children, relatively (but not totally) under their yoke. As a result, students will turn to extra-curricular activities and informal social relationships for alternative sources of reward and satisfaction.

Waller therefore, saw coercion, rather than value consensus as the basis of classroom order. He believed that the interests of teachers and students conflict. The result is that they engage in perpetual power struggles. *"Classroom order collapses and is re-established, but children have no hope of winning".* (Waller 1932; 365)

1.4.1.5. The Position of the Neo-Marxists.

Key among the conflict theorists who reacted to the equilibrium approach of the consensus theorists and the structural functionalists, were the neo-Marxists, they are next considered.

According to Young (1971; 27) Marx (1846) himself wrote very little about education though a notion of 'poly-technical education' which underlies the educational policy of the communist countries can be found in one of his early speeches. Though Marx does have a theory, which at a very general level can account for the changes in men's consciousness or categories of thought, in terms of the changing means of production and the social relations they generate, he does not extend this to a systematic analysis of the educational system of his time, comparable with his analysis of the economy.

However Marx's claim that education in a 'capitalist society' is

"a tool of ruling class interest"

does direct one to examine the relation between interests of economically dominant groups and the prevailing ideas of education as 'good' and 'worthwhile' in itself,

"Marx and Engels, both had the conviction that the material requirements of life determine ideas". (Levitas 1974; 9)

The Italian Marxist, Antonio Gramsci was more concerned with education. Only fragments of his work (Gramsci 1954, 1967) are available in English. His primary concern was with both the role of intellectuals (and by implication, their kind of knowledge) and the cultural hegemony, which he saw imposed on the working classes, who are thus prevented from thinking for themselves. On account of these views, his work is important for any study considering the content of education.

The most interesting recent attempt within a Marxist framework is that of Anderson (1969) in which he attempts to relate the context of the humanities in English academic curricula to the historical development of the class struggle. He is criticized however by Young (1971), who feels that his work is theoretically weak, because of his claim to a structural analysis which exhibits the same flaws as most functional analysis of institutions.

Williams (1961) with a neo-Marxist framework, provides perhaps the most promising, and for sociologists, the most neglected, approach to the study of the context of education.

He distinguishes four sets of educational philosophies or ideologies which rationalize different emphases in the selection of the content of the curricula. He relates these to the social position of those who hold them. He then suggests that curricula changes have reflected the relative power of the different groups over the last

hundred years.

Williams summarizes these four distinct sets of educational philosophies or ideologies - which rationalize different emphases in the selection of the content of the curricula - relating these to the social position of those who hold them. The following Table depicts his views.

	IDEOLOGY	SOCIAL POSITION	EDUCATIONAL POLICIES
1.	LIBERAL	ARISTOCRACY/GENTRY	NON-VOCATIONAL The Educated Man emphasis on character
2.	BOURGEOIS	MERCHANT/ PROFESSIONAL CLASS	HIGHER VOCATIONAL PROFESSIONAL COURSES Education on access to desired positions
3.	DEMOCRATIC	RADICAL REFORMERS	EXPANSIONIST Education for ALL
4.	POPULIST PROLETARIAN	WORKING CLASS SUB-ORDINATE GROUPS	STUDENT Relevance Choice Participation

Source: Young 1971; 29.

According to Young, the greatest weakness of this approach is that little attention is given to the changing power relations between the groups which might account for curricular changes.

Neo-Marxists claim that their approach to social phenomena is a scientific one. For Marxists the development of knowledge concerning the conditions of learning is of considerable importance as a facet of the class struggle. Most significant of all is the Soviet understanding of the role of the teacher and of the function

of the school, since role and function exclude selection.

"All children must learn to use their minds".

But then there is no labour market in the capitalist sense of the term. They have a network of occupations, whose requirements must be met; capitalism has a

"structure of opportunities for jobs". (Levitas 1974; 193)

The former makes it desirable to strive for all to be "an educated person"; the latter makes desirable a differentiated educational system and imposes rejection for those who constitute a surplus in excess of the opportunities available (Levitas 1974; 193). It can be seen then, that neo-Marxists are definitely within the theoretical framework of the conflict theorists.

Maurice Levitas points out that an understanding of the Marxist perspective of education requires not only a study of Marx and Engels and their followers, but demands also the closest consideration of education as a part of modern social history. This is beyond the scope of this dissertation, but it is of interest to record that some attempts to adopt a "Marxist" approach to the Sociology of Education, have brought the subject into disrepute. Some of the Open University courses in sociology/education/capitalism have enjoyed unfortunate publicity in this regard.

1.4.1.6. Conclusion.

The aim of this brief review of conflict and consensus theories as applied to education has been to illustrate the crucial importance of organizing conceptual frameworks in sociological research.

It is obvious that no one set of concepts is sufficient to give coverage to all the complexities of social life. Sociology has not reached that pinnacle of perfection. But by being aware of the known concepts, it will be possible to make use of them. These concepts need to be proven or discarded by empirical social research

studies.

It is now necessary to discuss the methods used in the Sociology of Education. This will be followed with a description of the trends within the Sociology of Education in regard to the actual research done from 1963 onwards. Finally the work of Young and his colleagues, who delve into the question of the Sociology of Knowledge, is discussed, thus bringing the debate on the Sociology of Education up to the present time.

The task of tracing the history and development of the Sociology of Education will conclude with remarks on the relevance of this introduction to this thesis on Guidance and Counselling.

1.4.2. Methods of Social Research which find Application in Sociology of Education.

Introduction.

Having postulated theories it is necessary to support them if they are to have any validity. This is done by empirical research. Various methods have been, and are, used to analyse findings. From its very inception Sociology has been embroiled in debates on methods of investigation and research. According to Simpson (1954) these debates on method are of central importance. He maintains that the type of method used by sociologists, determines in large measure the kind of problems with which they deal. It also determines the kind of hypotheses which they establish for problems; the manner in which the data will be tabulated or analysed and even the interpretations which will be made of the data.

> *"Many sociologists hope that the reverse will apply, namely that the choice of problem will dictate one's approach and methods".* (Watts 1977)

Simpson (1954; 48) cites as an example: *A study seeking the causes of criminal behavior.* Methodology in this work refers to the

principles which determine how we look at the data, what we look for in the data, and what the data are considered to be.

In this particular study, it makes a great deal of difference whether or not one believes that the tabulations of the statistics of crime and the close inspection and interpretation of them, will yield adequate explanation. Then the method used will be based on the structural functional approach, originated by Durkheim. If however one believes that criminal behaviour is rooted in the life history of criminals,

> *"That criminals are made not born and criminality is a possible form of behaviour that all men might have pursued, if their lives had been determined by psychic and social adversity".* (Simpson 1954; 49)

Methodology involves a statement in social psychological theory deemed pertinent to the interpretation of criminal behaviour, taking cognisance of motive and attitude. The main point is whether the researchers believe that human behaviour is explicable in terms of reductionism (by reference to physiological, psychological and human biology(; or in terms of the "social", an area of investigation *per se*, which finally cannot rely on biology and physiology or even psychology, for its concepts, hypotheses, analyses and interpretation.

1.4.2.1. The Opinions of Durkheim and Weber.

Two diametrically opposite answers have been given to this central question, one by the Behaviorists and the other by the followers of the Verstehen (i.e. interpretative) school of Sociology (e.g. Max Weber).

Durkheim stated his position in the classic *Rules of Sociological Method.* He was an objectivist. His main idea was that society and social groups cannot be studied by reducing them to individual behaviour. He believed that individual behaviour must be studied by Sociology, as a manifestation of collectivity, of which it is a part, and whose characteristic it embodies.

For the German Sociologist Weber, the laws of social action can be arrived at through the method of understanding (verstehen). In social action, the action has meaning for the actors and this meaning must be understood by sociologists imaginately participating in it. The sociologist must interpretatively grasp the meaning of the actor or actors. Crucial to the understanding of social action is the grasp of the motive behind it. For Weber, action always means the action of individual human beings, not of collectivities, e.g. the constitution of the United States is not understood as part of "The State" but can be understood as the actions of individuals relative to the idea of the constitution.

According to Weber, Sociology has no closer relationship to Psychology than to any other natural science. However, a type of psychology, called Verstehende Psychologie, which employs the method of subjective understanding and is able to explain irrationalities in human action can make a contribution to psychology.

1.4.2.2. The Opinions of other Sociologists.

In the United States Charles H. Cooley, Robert M. MacIver and Florian Znaniecki took positions similar to Weber. Cooley claimed that it was necessary in the interpretation of sociological data to use what he called sympathetic introspection. By this method sociologists can get at the motives and attitudes of human beings under investigation and can "understand" in Weber's sense of the term.

Arrayed against the views of Weber, Cooley, MacIver and Znaniecki are the Positivists. George Lundberg claimed that motives and attitudes can be inferred only from actual behaviour. He had little use for the life-history technique, whereby motives and attitudes are explained in terms of factors that have been operative in the individual's intimate biography. Lundberg argues that the maturity of every science comes about through

> *"geometric, arithmetic and algebraic ways of expressing relationships ... The more intricate and variable the situation is, we wish to describe, the more dependent we*

become on mathematical systems of symbolization".
(Lundberg 1939; 122-3)

Lundberg was supported in his ideas by Dodd (1939) who in *The Dimensions of Society* has sought to symbolize basic sociological concepts through mathematics.

Bertrand Russell, a great mathematician and co-author with Alfred N. Whitehead, of the work, *The Principia Mathematica*, maintained that:

"The part played by measurement and quantity in science is very great, but is I think sometimes over-estimated ... a law may be scientific, without being quantitative".
(1931; 67)

Sociology, like any other science is made up of fields, areas of investigation, just as Physics consists of fields such as light, heat, sound, electricity. Basic to all fields in physics are the concepts of matter and of energy. Though different sociologists have used different terms for the central frame of reference for sociology, all of them aim, however, at understanding the interaction of people with other people, i.e. the underlying orientation of human social behaviour.

The writer will now consider the Interactionist Perspective. According to Denzin's judgement (1970), symbolic interaction which was a reaction to the conflict theory, best fits the empirical nature of the social world. Each research study, according to Denzin, involves a sociological theory, which requires a special methodology. This is necessary in order to obtain a valid proof of the theoretical surmise the researcher wishes to prove.

Denzin maintains that any sociological research depends on the following elements.

1. Theory
2. Methodology
3. Research Activity
4. Sociological Imagination

By "Theory" Denzin means an integrated body of propositions, which lead to the explanation of some social phenomena. The function of theory is to give order and insight to research activities.

By "Methodology" Denzin means the principal ways in which the sociologist acts on his environment in an effort to obtain validity and verification. Be these methods experiments, questionnaires schedules, surveys, life-histories or by interview - their aim is to make sociological research valid, public and usable by others. As the sociologist moves from theories to the selection of methods, the emergence of that process called research activity occurs. In this process the personal decision of a scientist for one theory or method emerges. The area selected for study, e.g. Delinquency: the Family; or a study of a selected Guidance and Counselling service, is a personal decision. Here, according to Denzin, the sociological imagination plays its role. This consists of the capacity to shift from one perspective to another, and in the process to build up an adequate view of a total society. It is this imagination that distinguishes the social scientist from a mere technician. Denzin is firm in his belief that each method takes on a different viewpoint, when analyzed from the perspective of symbolic interactionism.

> *"The interactionist's conception of human behaviour assumes that behaviour is self-directed and observable at two distinct levels - the symbolic and the interactional".*
> (1971; 5)

By self-directed Denzin means that humans can act towards themselves as they would toward any other object. As Blumer (no date) states

> *"The human may perceive himself, have conceptions of himself, communicate with himself and act towards himself".*

This behaviour, which Blumer calls "self-interaction", permits humans to plan and align their actions with others.*

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* This view of society stems from the original philosophical thought of George Herbert Mead.

The interactionist assumes that humans are able to act because they have agreed on the meanings they will attach to the relevant objects in their environment. Before such consensus can occur, common symbolic language must be present.

Denzin makes it clear that the interactionist assumes that man learns his basic symbols, his conceptions of self, and the definitions he attaches to social objects, through interaction with others.

The above are the basics of the interactionist perspective, which has dominated research in the Sociology of Education during the last two decades. It is a perspective that may lack the objectivity which was achieved by the natural sciences, but which is more suitable to the problems inherent in the very nature of sociological research.

The symbolic interactionist perspective is in keeping with the phenomenological approach advocated by Maurice Natanson (1963), Goldstein (1964), Schutz (1964) *et.al.* The structural-functional analysis of society was also used by sociologists who studied education in the last two decades, but not without reservation, social change and lack of consensus were factors that were recognized, and not ignored. The fact is that both perspectives - structural-functionalist and symbolic interactionist were given consideration by some researchers in the field of the Sociology of Education.

1.4.3. Empirical Research in the Field of the Sociology of Education.

Since the change from Educational Sociology to the Sociology of Education in approximately 1963, there has been an increased commitment to empirical research among sociologists interested in education. Conrad's review (1958) of the research literature in Educational Sociology during the decade of 1940-1950 showed that

> *"Many writers used anecdotal stories and moral exhortations to buttress their arguments, rather than rigorous and systematic research ... only a fraction (of the studies)*

> *used standardized tests, interviews or observation, and almost no study was reported which used experimental techniques".* (Orville G. Brim referring to the Conclusions of Richard Conrad 1958; 10)

According to Parelius and Parelius (1978):

> *"The last two decades have brought a dramatic rise in research standards".* (1978; 17)

These writers are of opinion that few pieces of research are now published that do not have some kind of empirical reference or documentation. They further are of opinion that most studies published have carefully reported field observations; large scale surveys of national samples and experimental designs are common. They add that statistical techniques for the analysis of complex and subtle relationships between numerous interacting variables have been developed, and permeate the literature. In addition one research journal reports work done using smaller samples well supported by the literature.

Some sociologists hope that eventually the growing body of empirical findings will be placed into theoretical paradigms, in order to formulate general principles. Others, like Maurice Natanson (1963), Goldstein (1963) and Schutz (1963) follow the phenomenologist perspectives. They see difficulties in formulating a strict code of general principles on social life, because of the nature of the subject. As already stated, according to Denzin's judgement symbolic interactionism best fits the empirical nature of the social world.

According to Brookover and Erikson (1975; 11) the first trend in the sociological study of Education tended to be social psychological in character. Individual attitudes and conduct are explained by reference to the influence of other persons and factors. Sociologists of education have spent the greatest proportion of their time studying the development and outcome of student values and conception of self and the world. The impact of family, friends and

teachers upon student views and values has characterized a considerable proportion of this effort. There has also been concern for the impact of the families, neighbourhood, race and socio-economic status on student performance and attitudes. In addition, studies of the social-psychological effects of different types of school environments have been undertaken. Reviews of the research literature prove that two of the most frequently studied variables have been student aspirations and socio-economic status level.[2)]

A number of very interesting and detailed analytical reviews of trends in the Sociology of Education have been published. Among these are the works of Card, Kelsey and Julia Wong (1971) entitled *The Development of Educational Sociology from 1912-1970;* and a paper written by Neal Gross *Sociology of Education* (1970). Another valuable contribution was Merton's work *Sociology Today* (1959). Apart from these are the work of authors already quoted, e.g. Olive Banks (1968), Berger and Luckman (1972), Levitas (1974), Brookover and Erikson (1975), Bernbaum (1977), and Parelius and Parelius (1978). Basil Bernstein and Young and their colleagures have contributed to the developing sociology of Education from its inception until the present time.

Brookover (1975) classifies writing and research in the Sociology of Education. He maintains that the second major trend has been the development of studies concerned with the function of education in the larger society. Brookover cites the types of research as follows:

1. Research on school and community and on the reciprocal effects of education on economic and social development in "emerging countries".

2. The effect of various types and levels of education on social change in general.

3. In industrial societies, studies on the relationship of education to society which have centred on the functions of education in the stratification system of the society.

4. Studies on the political functions of education.

5. Studies on how schools act as agents for governmental institutions.

6. Studies relating education to culture.

7. In the United States of America, Canada and Great Britain, sociologists have given their attention to the role of education in the perpetuation or alleviation of poverty.

8. Studies on the role of education in integrating or maintaining a segregated pluralistic society in the United States of America.

Many current sociologists of education have, according to Brookover, returned to some of the concerns of earlier educational sociologists, who wished to use education as an ameliorative agency for dealing with social problems, e.g. studies on the problems of urban education faced by minorities, and how problems may be overcome.

A third trend in the research endeavours of the sociology of Education, may be identified under the term "organizational" and "social systems" analyses. The studies have included analyses of patterned relationships between teachers and administrators, and sometimes between teachers and students.

Recent developments have shifted the focus to include students and higher education, e.g. causes of student rebellion, and attitudes of students. There has however been a limited list of empirical studies of schools as complex organizations or systems. Hopefully, this will be investigated more fully in the future.

Much research has involved the study of roles, norms and

values attached to school systems, and to variations in roles, norms and values within school subcultures. There has been considerable discussion concerning the reality of a distinguishable adolescent subculture. There is a controversy as to the existence of such a subculture.

In England, apart from Basil Bernstein (who is discussed more fully later) and Ashley, Cohen and Slatter (1969), Maurice Craft has made a considerable contribution to research in the Sociology of Education. His reader, *Family Class and Education* contains the following studies (published in 1970, reprinted in 1971; 72):

1. Demographic Studies.
   Social Class Factors in educational achievement by Jean Floud.
   The influence of the Home - R.R. Dale and Griffiths.

2. Contextual Studies.
   The community environment of the School by John Eggleston.
   Two Sub-cultures by David Hargreaves.

3. Subcultural Studies.
   Parental Encouragement by J.W.B. Douglass.
   The survey of Parental attitudes and circumstances by Roma Morton Williams.
   The "Good Home" by Frank Musgrove.

Apart from the above David Hargreaves (1967) and Olive Banks (1968), Ken Williams (1974), Marland (1974), Anne Jones (1977) and Shipman (1974) were outstanding contributors of research in the field of the Sociology of Education in England. Musgrave (1979) has recently updated his valuable basic text in *Sociology of Education*.

It is quite beyond the scope of this introduction to detail the research of all who deserve mention. Many, however, will be quoted in the ensuing chapters.

It can be seen therefore, that,

"the Sociology of Education is not a distinct branch of sociology in the sense of having its own theoretical perspectives, but rather it is a division of sociological activity in which sociologists of many skills, theoretical perspectives and interests analyze educational phenomena from different frames of reference". (Brookover 1975; 13)

Despite the many studies presented, there have been writers who did not consider this research to be adequate. The views of these thinkers will now be presented as part of the review of the development of the Sociology of Education.

1.5 The Contemporary Debate.

Having surveyed some of the research in the Sociology of Education, it is now pertinent to draw attention to the contemporary debate (1970 onwards) about the nature of research in the subject. There is a new direction which urges that the Sociology of Education should move towards an inclusion of the sociology of knowledge. The following pages will present an account of this direction. A critical evaluation of it is not attempted, because the writer is presenting this information from the developmental aspect.

1.5.1. The following is an account of the thinking of some of the main contributors to the current debate on the necessity to extend the field of research in the Sociology of Education to include the Sociology of Knowledge.

Michael F.D. Young (from 1971 onwards) is currently interested in the control of educational knowledge and particularly the sociology of science education. He is interested in research on the context of knowledge. He presented his ideas in a paper entitled, *An Approach to the Study of Curricula as Socially Organized Knowledge* (1971: again in 1978).

Basil Bernstein, Professor of Sociology of Education at the University of London and Head of the Sociological Research Unit, has published widely in the fields of socio-linguistics and the Sociology of Education. In respect of the debate on the Sociology of Knowledge he published a paper entitled, *On the Classification and Framing of Educational Knowledge* (1971: 1978)

Alan F. Blum of the Department of Sociology of New York University contributed to the debate on the need for a Sociology of Knowledge. His paper published in 1971 and reprinted in 1978 is entitled, *The Corpus of Knowledge as a Normative Order.* In addition, Blum had published papers on sociological theory and the process of Socialization.

Pierre Bordieu, the Director of Studies at the Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes in Paris, has published widely in the Sociology of Culture, art and education and related fields. His contribution to this new aspect of the Sociology of Education, namely the Sociology of Knowledge is entitled, *Intellectual Critiques of the Social Order of Knowledge and Commonsense Features of of Knowledge.* (1971, reprinted 1978)

Geoffrey M. Esland, who teaches Sociology in the Faculty of Educational Studies, The Open University, Milton Keynes, England, is also working on innovations in educational knowledge. His publication in 1971 and reprinted in 1978 is entitled, *Teaching and Learning as the Organization of Knowledge.*

Nell Keddie teaches Sociology at Goldsmith College, University of London. Her current research interests are the organization of educational knowledge in schools. She wrote in 1971, reprinted in 1978, a paper entitled, *Classroom Knowledge.* She considers two aspects of classroom knowledge: what knowledge teachers have of pupils, and what counts as knowledge to be made available and evaluated in the classroom.

Ioan Davies' contribution to the importance of including in the Sociology of Education the Sociology of Knowledge is expressed in his work, *The Management of Knowledge: A critique in the use of Typologies in the Sociology of Education.*[3] (1971, reprinted 1978)

The above thinkers led by Michael D. Young, Basil Bernstein and Pierre Bordieu decided after the Durham conference of the British Sociological Association of April 1970 to contribute to a new publication *Knowledge and Control.* In the series of papers published therein, they offer a new approach to the Sociology of Education, by examining educational problems from the perspective of the sociology of knowledge. Education itself is treated as a social category, a set of meanings which may be shared and so are open to empirical investigation. By focussing on the social organization of knowledge, their combined work shows how the Sociology of Education can contribute to the fundamental issues concerning the nature and scope of sociological enquiry. Knowledge becomes probelmatic. It is a philosophical issue open to interpretation.

Michael D. Young (1971) maintains that all the contributors do not share either a common doctrine or perspective but that what they hold in common is not taking for granted existing definitions of educational reality.[4] They are inevitably led to consider, often from widely different perspectives as problematic, "what counts as educational knowledge". The implication of this for Young is that one major focus of the Sociology of Education becomes an enquiry into the social organization of knowledge in educational institutions. This, according to Young has important implications for the organization of sociological knowledge.

> *"Sociology of Education is no longer conceived as an area of enquiry distinct from the Sociology of Knowledge".*
> (Young 1978; 3)

Ioan Davies (1973) commenting on this problem writes that

> *"the problem of the so-called Sociology of Education is that, ... existing research focuses mainly on the study of stratification and organization".* (1973; 317)

This means, according to Davies that there is little existing sociological analysis that contributes discreetly to such issues as the curriculum, research, the formalization of disciplines, learning processes or moral education.

> *"It is not surprising, therefore, that laymen (and indeed most Sociologists) are convinced that sociology's main contributors to educational studies is the relationship between patterns of stratification and educational opportunity".* (1973; 317)

It was the contributions on the study of knowledge itself, by the forementioned authors, that Young compiled into the publication *Knowledge and Control* (1971; 1978). Young states in this publication:

> *"I shall first attempt to suggest what might be involved in a sociology of education, which makes the problems of control and the organization of knowledge its core concern".* (1971; 3)

1.5.1.2. Reasons for a Sociology of Knowledge.

Young suggests that in order to explore the problems of the Sociology of Education it is necessary to examine in general terms,

> *"the implications of meta-theory or doctrine of control, and secondly what is involved in treating the knowledge ('transmitted' in education) as neither absolute, nor arbitrary, but as an available set of meanings which are collectively given".* (1971; 8, 3)

Young refers to Dawe (1970), who suggests that the alternative to the problem of order, which he refers to as the doctrine of control, has been one of the main strands of sociological enquiry since the eighteenth century. At any time, according to Young it has involved the critical questioning of whatever is taken as inviolable, whether 'God-given' or through 'natural law'. This questioning has been paralleled by attempts to assert man's control over his institutions and to participate in changing them. Young points out that in the

Eighteenth Century it was predominantly the Feudal and clerical orders that social criticism and enquiry focussed on; whereas nineteenth century control doctrines were dominated increasingly by Marxism. As Blum (1971) points out,

> *"Marxism was primarily concerned with the assumed absolutisms of the market and its laws, and with attempts to expose the social meanings of the market economy in terms of its underlying, exploitative character".* (1971; 123)

Young suggests that much of this social criticism has been based on the new absolutism, that of science and of reason.

> *"Today it is the common sense conceptions of the scientific and 'the rational', together with the various social political and educational beliefs that are assumed to follow them, that represent the dominant legitimizing categories".* (Young 1971; 3)

Young reasons that it is the task of sociological enquiry to treat these categories, i.e. the scientific and the rational, not as absolutes, but as constructed realities ... which become open to enquiry and the necessary preliminary to conceiving of alternatives. Later in this discussion of the reasons for a sociology of knowledge, he maintains that:

> *"The direction of research for a Sociology of Education of knowledge, becomes to explore how and why certain dominant categories persist and the nature of their possible links to sets of interest or activities such as occupational groupings".* (Young 1971; 6)

Much of Pierre Bordieu's work (1970) has been directed to this kind of enquiry. Both Bernstein (1971) and Mary Douglas (1971) refer to the classification of knowledge in society. Young is of opinion that if our educational problems are dependent on educations' classifications, then an exploration of what Bernstein refers to as the "deep structure" of such classifications to characteristics of the socio-economic order,

should be a central concern for sociological enquiry into education. (Bernstein cited by Young 1971; 6)

1.5.3. Reasons for the Delay in Developing a Sociology of Knowledge.

Why sociologists did not raise questions and develop research into the social organization of educational knowledge is explained by Young in his paper *An Approach to the Study of Curricula as Socially Organized Knowledge* (1971). He offers as probable, the following explanations of failure to enquire into the sociology of knowledge.

Young discusses the changing focus of the public debates about education in the last twenty years. He maintains that in England it is possible to trace three stages in the public debates on Education:

The foci have been on equality of opportunity; the wastage of talent; the organization and selection of pupils, and the curriculum. The first focus of attention was documented by the Early Leaving (1954) and Crowther Reports (1959) and later the Robbins Report (1963). Also as has been shown earlier, the class nature and the resulting lack of opportunity for some were demonstrated by Floud and Halsey (1958) and by Bernstein (1958).

The second phase of the public debate from the mid-sixties, focussed on the issues of selection and comprehensive organization. Young points out that the debate became an issue of political conflict, e.g. the question of the abolition of selective schools threatened certain significant and powerful interests in society, particularly the career-grammar, direct-grant and public school staff and the parents of children who expected to go to such schools. The injustice of the eleven plus made its abolition a convenient political commitment for reformist politicians.

> *"This debate was paralleled by an increasing interest by sociologists in all kinds of organizations and the possibility of applying the more general models of organizational theory to schools and colleges".* (Young 1971;20)

It was only after these problems had ceased to demand attention, that the debate moved from organization to curriculum.

1.5.4. The Importance of the Sociology of Knowledge.

Young proceeds to show the importance of a Sociology of Education, which deals with the sociology of the curriculum. He feels that a field which has as its concern the social conditions which influence the development of knowledge and the socio-historical setting of the development of knowledge, should have regarded educational institutions and how knowledge is selected and organized in them, as an obvious area for research. Young then shows that,

> *"sociological research, drawing on the Marxist, Weberian and Durheimian traditions, can contribute to a re-orientation of the sociology of education that would no longer neglect curricula, nor as Talcott Parsons treats power, consider it as an epiphenomenon".* (Young 1971; 31)

Representing this new viewpoint, Young feels that sociologists of education should undertake studies on the selection and organization of knowledge by those in a position of power. Such studies would be a fruitful perspective for raising sociological questions about the context of curricula.

Bernstein as long ago as 1968, posed three interrelated questions about how knowledge is organized in curricula:

1. The power of some to define what is 'valued knowledge', leads to the problem of accounting for how stratified knowledge is and by what criteria;
2. The restriction of the accessibility of knowledge areas to different groups: This poses the question, in relation to curricula, as to the scope of curricula to different age groups, and more specifically to the social factors influencing the degree of specialization at any age level;

3. What fields of enquiry were, at different times and in different cultures, embraced by a term like 'science'. This raises the question of the relation between knowledge areas and those with access to them.

Young discusses the fact that the expansion of knowledge is paralleled by its increasing differentiation.

> *"Empirically we could no doubt demonstrate, that increasing differentiation is necessary for some groups to be in a position to legitimize 'their knowledge' as superior or of high value".* (Young 1971; 33)

Young poses questions: What is the scope of knowledge areas? How stratified are the knowledge areas? He suggests that if knowledge is highly stratified, there will be a clear distinction between what is taken to count as knowledge, and what is not, on the basis of which processes of selection and exclusion of curricula take place.

He maintains that in Britain academic curricula are based on the assumption that some kinds of knowledge are more worthwhile than others.

> *"It may be useful therefore, to view curricular changes as involving changing definitions of knowledge along one or more of the dimensions towards a less or more stratified, specialized and open organization of knowledge".* (Young 1971; 34)

Recent changes in Medical and Engineering curricula bring out the ways in which the characteristics and content of the curricula are influenced by the changing values and interests of the controlling group. Those controlling medical and engineering curricula (also architecture), have recently introduced a social science component into the course. The example is significant, because it shows that a change in the position of the engineer and the doctor may influence definitions of relevant knowledge and of the curricula.

Summary.

Young has made an attempt to offer a sociological approach to the organization and content of knowledge in the curriculum. He admits his outline has been "limited and schematic", but this is in part due to "the total lack of research by sociologists of Education in this field". He asks, "Why no Sociology of the Curriculum?" He replies

> *"Perhaps the organization of knowledge implicit in our own curricula is so much part of our taken-for-granted world, that we are unable to conceive of alternatives".* (1971; 41)

1.5.6. The View of Bernstein (1971).

Finally, by way of introduction, Bernstein's contribution entitled *On the Classification and Framing of Educational Knowledge* (1971) deserves consideration. He states clearly that,

> *"How a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control".* (1971; 47)

From this point of view,

> *"Differences within and change in the organization, transmission and evaluation of educational knowledge, should be a major area of sociological interests".* (1971; 47)

Bernstein maintains that such a study is part of the larger question of the structure and changes in cultural transmission. British sociologists have fought shy of this question. As a result,

> *"The sociology of education has been reduced to a series of input-output problems, the school has been transformed into a complex organization or people-processing institution; the study of socialization has been trivialized".* (1971; 47)

Bernstein is of opinion that formal education can be considered to be realized through three message systems. These are as follows:

1. Curriculum.
2. Pedagogy.
3. Evaluation.

These terms were expanded by Esland. According to Bernstein however, curriculum defines what counts as valid knowledge; Pedagogy defines as what counts as the valid transmission of knowledge; evaluation as what counts as realization of this knowledge, on the part of the taught.

Bernstein introduces the term, "educational knowledge code", which refers to the underlying principles which shape curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation. He then shows that the form this code takes depends upon social principles made public in educational institutions, which regulate the classification and framing of knowledge.

He is of opinion that both Durkheim and Marx have shown that the structure of society's classifications and frames reveal both the distribution of power and the principles of social control. He claims that,

> *"I hope to show, theoretically, that educational codes provide excellent opportunities for the study of classification and frames through which experience is given a distinctive form".* (1971; 48)

He concludes by expressing the hope that this approach will encourage sociologists of education to explore both theoretically, and empirically, the structure of educational knowledge, which he maintains is a distinctive feature of the Sociology of Education.

1.5.7. Comment.

In an introduction of this kind, it is not possible to consider in detail all the arguments connected with the epistemological debate about current issues. Young's argument and those of Bernstein and their associates, can be treated as representative of this English new direction in the Sociology of Education, which has particularly found expression in Open University Courses.

It is necessary to mention that according to Bernbaum (1977; 51) there has been much argument against Young's attempt to move the Sociology of Education towards the Sociology of Knowledge. In later short articles, Young attempts to deal with the frequently argued objections to the general principles which underlie his position. These objections imply that if Young is arguing in favour of the relativism of knowledge, relativism of a cultural and historical kind, then these same accusations can be made about his own knowledge.

Young replies to this by introducing the concept of reflexive sociology. He supports the view of sociology, as the "subversion of absolutism". He maintains that what is required of sociology is that it should ask questions about the superiority of sociological knowledge, with a view not only to interpreting the world but also changing it. He maintains that the problems of the validity of truth, criteria or relativism, are still evaded, rather than confronted. This is so, whether one turns to one of a variety of objectivistic views of knowledge - to Dewey's "rational man" ... Weber's "rational actor" ... or to Marx's "proletariat". The solution advocated by Young to these difficulties is to turn to the work of Merleau-Ponty (1909), Bernbaum asserts (1977; 52) that his idea is that,

> *"we have to work without certainty, in confusion, towards truth".*

1.6 Conclusion.

This review of the development of the Sociology of Education has set out to clarify the difference between Educational Sociology and the Sociology of Education.

Bernbaum contends that the problem with Educational Sociology was that there never was an articulated body of concepts, clearly verified hypotheses, approved by widely recognized and acceptable techniques.

The most significant feature of the "old sociology of education" was its strong dependence on the educationalist context; at best the "old sociology" of education could undertake a dialogue with educational ideologies.

It has been established that neither the old nor the new sociologies of education are immune to ideological influences. Such influence has, however, been less obvious in the United States (apart from in the writings of the radical "new sociology").

According to Bernbaum's judgement, the recent changes in educational practice and ideologies which emphasize "cultural relativism" in discussion of the school curriculum and the teacher's knowledge, and which represent attempts to equalise power between 'teacher' and 'taught', have been the context in which the new Sociology of Education has originated, and which in turn it has helped legitimate.

Despite Znanecki's warning against sociologists taking up epistemological questions and that in his view sociologists are not entitled to make judgements concerning the validity of systems of knowledge, Bernbaum notes that:

> *"None of this means abandoning the Sociology of Knowledge, provided it does not undermine the bases of all knowledge. Instead it should enable the sociologist to concentrate on studies of the way in which knowledge is produced, distributed and legitimated".* (1977; 64)

This would enable sociologists of education to improve their knowledge of the distribution of knowledge. It would give them an understanding of how, over a period of time, subjects have been institutionalized in various types of schools.

This is in agreement with Maurice Levitas (1974) that whilst continuity is inevitable a culture is not eternal.

> *"Continuity always partners change ... any worthwhile innovatory approach to the curriculum must take into account appropriateness for a changing society and for the growing members of society of what is to be learned or studied".* (1974; 10)

It is therefore necessary for teachers to consider what is obsolescent and what is developing (re curriculum content) and what is likely to have a greater future in, for example, our society. This is of particular concern to teacher-counsellors, who assist pupils with subject choices, with a view to their future careers.

The writer is in agreement with Gerald Bernbaum's comment that:

> *"As the Sociology of Education develops, it is possible to hope, that it might lead to a more accurate description of educational arrangements and processes in society".* (1977; 69)

This would ensure that the micro-view, as well as the macro-view involving the general good is accounted for in recommendations made by Sociologists of Education.

1.6.1. Comment.

This view of the development of the Sociology of Education, indicates the increasing stress placed on the individual's interpretation of reality, and consequently the potential for the individual's maladjustments in society.

Bernstein's comment, when describing the difference between Educational Sociology and the Sociology of Education, can be applied to the reason for a counselling service in an educational system. He maintained that the earlier work was focussed on 'demonstration', not 'explanation' of institutional sources of inequality in education. (1977; 64). Early researchers were not concerned with individuals; their main concern was education for all. In England studies such as those of Douglas and Plowden (1964) on *"Failure of Early Leavers and Drop-Outs"* blamed broad notions, e.g. Poverty, Social class, etc., for inequality in education. But these factors alone were not proved to be the culprits. Only later when 'demonstration' was replaced by explanation through in-depth studies, was the merit of thinking in terms of "the individual" at schools, colleges and at University level, realized.

The importance for the Sociology of Education of the nature and transmission of knowledge has been explained. One of the main objectives of a counselling service is to assist individual students to achieve the maximum standard of which they are capable. Basically it is a service which aims at promoting the successful transmission of knowledge, so that the adolescent on leaving school, will be able to play his role effectively in society. The school is therefore the agent of what Berger and Luckmann(1966) term "secondary socialization". 5)

Central to a counselling service and to the Sociology of Education are educational institutions of a society, i.e. the schools, colleges and universities which the society utilizes for the socialization of scholars and students. A counselling service fulfills a function in institutionalized education. Research on a counselling service is clearly a concern of the Sociology of Education.

In the next chapter, an analysis of some of the meanings of guidance and counselling in the school situation will be presented. Thereafter, the broad topics considered in this work include the history of counselling services, the connection between home and school, and adolescence.

The dissertation concludes with a review of counselling and guidance services presently offered in the Republic of South Africa, a report of investigations carried out by the writer, and some recommendations arising from the study. The method of research is basically *ex post facto:* existing and past situations are analysed and evaluated in the light of appropriate literature.

NOTES.

1) Paradigms are those theories that bind persons to a certain way of looking at the world, by studying it and explaining it. (Weinberg 1969;119)

2) In the Republic of South Africa few research studies have been done on such topics.

3) Ioan Davies' paper demonstrated the distorting effect of assuming that the most important questions in the Sociology of Education are to do with social stratification and educational opportunity. He is of opinion that without a theory of knowledge itself, *"it is difficult to see what the stratification debate is about"*. (1978; 268)

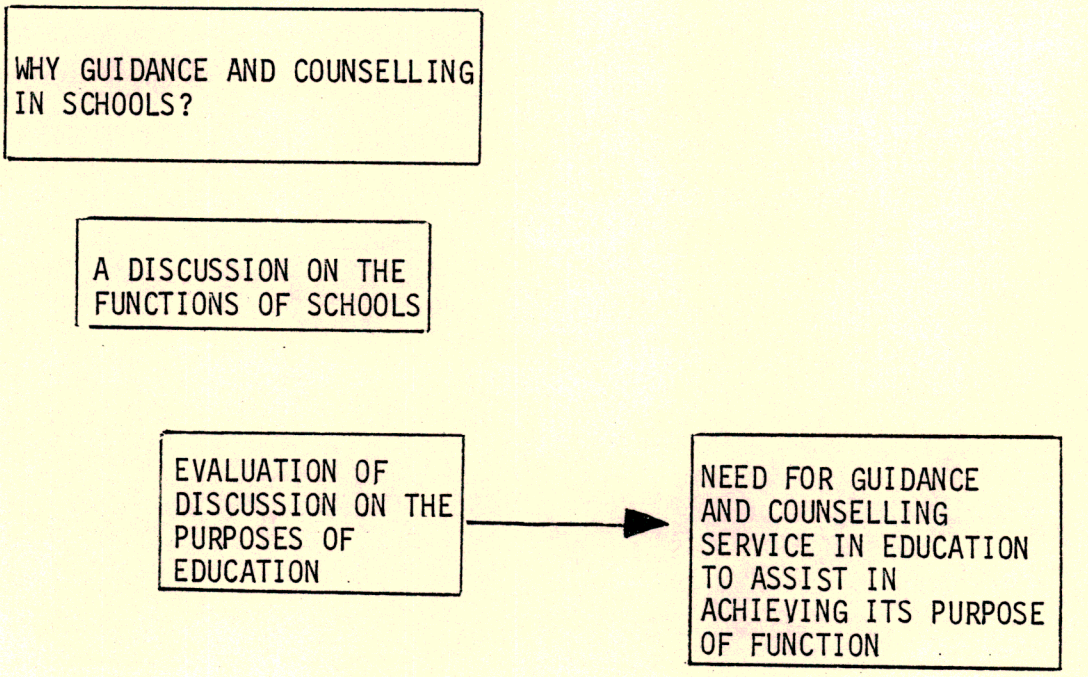
4) Michael D. Young held the same opinion in 1978.

5) There will be an in-depth discussion on socialization in later chapters of this dissertation.

CHAPTER TWO.

1. Summary of the Educational Setting for Guidance and Counselling

Pages 46-53



CHAPTER TWO.

THE MEANING OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING, AND THEIR PLACE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

"Really effective Counseling is the key-stone of the arch of a widespread educational system dedicated to the principle of equality of opportunity". (Conant 1948; 204)

In the introduction to this dissertation the point was established that a Counselling service fulfills a function in institutionalized education and that research on a counselling service may be seen as a concern of the Sociology of Education. It is the purpose of this chapter to clarify the meaning of Guidance and Counselling and its place in secondary schools.

2.1 The Educational Setting for Guidance and Counselling.

Sociologists of Education and authors writing in related fields e.g. Olive Banks (1968), Kingsley Davis (1964), Patterson (1968), Morrison and Macintyre (1971), Parelius and Parelius (1978) believe that schools are partially responsible for the transfer from one generation to the next of Society's beliefs, values, sentiments, knowledge and patterns of behaviour. This process is known as Socialization. It is conservative in that it perpetuates past and current culture. Educational organizations, however, also contribute to social change. One aspect of this is that schools are required to modify their curricula so that these curricula reflect new scientific and technological advances.

In fact, it is change in the actual function of the school that has led to the development of Guidance and Counselling services in secondary schools and other institutions of education, in the Western world, e.g. in the United States of America, Great Britain and in the Republic of South Africa.

The basic reason for change in the function of schools is that,

> *"Education is shaped by large scale social trends such as urbanization, industrialization and professionalization".* (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 28).

These new trends in society lead to new values and norms and also to social pathology. Social change has indirectly led to new requirements from schools. It was gradually realized by Sociologists of Education, Educationists, Social Workers and Psychologists that these requirements could best be fulfilled by a new concept namely a Guidance and Counselling service in secondary schools and in colleges and universities.

2.1.2. Patterson of the University of Illinois (1962; 12) poses the question, *Why Guidance and Counselling services in schools?*

The answer reduces essentially, according to Patterson, to two conflicting concepts of the function of the school. The one point of view sees the function of the school as being limited to the intellect. The other supports a broader purpose of education, suggesting that the school has an obligation to prepare its pupils/students for life, *"with its economic, social and personal problems and responsibilities".* (Patterson 1962; 13)

2.1.3. Views of Commissions of Enquiry and other Authors in the U.S.A. on the Functions of Education.

Patterson cites the following Commission of Enquiry in the United States of America, as having deliberated on the functions of education and having published findings and opinions of the meaning of education.

(1) In 1918 the U.S. Bureau of Education appointed a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. This Commission issued *Bulletin 35* entitled *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* in which it was stated that,

"Education must be for all citizenry, providing for each the opportunity for the fullest intellectual and personal development of which he is capable".

(2) In 1938, The Educational Policies Commission appointed by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators published a paper entitled, *The Purpose of Education in American Democracy*, in which it was stated that, *"The purpose of Education is for self-realization, for good human relationships, for economic efficiency and for civic responsibility".*

2.1.4. In 1948, Conant in his work *Education in a Divided World*, emphasized that,

"Education has three major objectives: education for citizenship, education for the good life and education for a career or vocation".

Patterson was of opinion that schools in the twentieth century should not and cannot restrict themselves to the three R's. A wider function for education and for schools was required.

"Education in a democracy must be concerned about the development of personally and socially responsible, as well as intelligent citizens". (1962; 11)

2.1.5. It seems apparent that, as personal and social development must be the concern of education, even if the major objective of education is the development of the intellect, the school must also be concerned with counselling and guidance. There is a clear relationship between the educational aim in schools and the need for Guidance and Counselling services.

In his work *Counselling and Guidance in Schools*, Patterson cites Sociologists and Sociologists of Education writing in America, e.g. Bestor (1953); Conant (1959); Henry (1942); Hutchins (1955); Kelley (1947); and Matthewson (1957). They all concur, that if

education must provide for each individual the opportunity for the fullest intellectual and personal development of which he is capable, the following factors must be noted. These are expressed by Patterson (1962; 11, 12).

2.1.5.1. The presence of a wide range of individual differences e.g. (a) in ability;

(b) in adaptation of teaching and the curriculum to cope with the variation in ability; and

(c) in the provision of secondary education to suit the range of aptitudes and abilities of the students.

2.1.5.2. The Nature and Conditions of Learning, including

(a) the effect of school environment on the students;

(b) the atmosphere of the classroom;

(c) the method of instruction; and

(d) the realization by the Administrators of Education of the above factors and the necessity to incorporate favourable conditions in the teaching-learning process.

2.1.5.3. The Unity of the Individual.

The student/pupil brings his total self to the learning situation. He is not a disembodied mind or intellect. His attitudes, feelings, emotions and physical state affect his capacity to learn or profit from instruction. These influences cannot be ignored if maximum attainment, according to the individual ability is to be achieved. The school must be responsible for the adolescent as a whole and provide assistance in resolving problems and conflicts. An effort must be made to remedy unfavourable attitudes and other conditions which impede learning.

2.1.5.4. There is no doubt, maintains Patterson et.al., that the school does have an influence on the personal social development of the individual. The school should therefore assume a responsibility in this area, through *"Life Adjustment Education"*. This can be done

through the medium of group counselling.

The above answers the question as to why there should be Guidance and Counselling services in schools. In order further to substantiate the connection between the need for a Guidance and Counselling Service and the function of the secondary school, the opinions of other writers will be considered.

2.1.6. Pietrofesa and Vriend agree that the function of the school reflects the major trends of society at large. They also believe that the school has two concerns, as

> *"The perpetuator of the society, and as a developer of individual potential".* (1971; 30)

They are of opinion that the American society is a highly industrialized mass society. The result has been (in some areas) a depersonalized society. These writers observe that:

(1) Membership in a primary or secondary group influences behaviour.
(2) Social relations and social pressures underlie the development of an individual's need structure.
(3) Social relationships can be instruments of control since they precipitate or prevent individual behaviour and expression.

These writers have concluded that American society has within it social institutions to deal with the "Socializing" of each individual. They cite the family, political organizations, the church, peer groups and schools as examples of social institutions, which have a responsibility towards the individual.

They draw attention to the fact that the school has a number of institutional representatives, who tell pupils what to do, how to behave and what is right and wrong. These include the principal and the teachers.

2.1.7. Waller (1956; 72) points out vividly that,

"The generalization that the schools have a despotic political structure seems to hold true for nearly all types of schools".

Waller's *The Sociology of Teaching* dealt with conflict in the classroom (1932). Parelius and Parelius (1978), commenting on Waller's attitude to conflict in the classroom are of opinion that,

"Waller sees the school as a coercive institution. At the top are the teachers, given their authority by the community outside the school ... The teacher is the task-master, attempting to make the students learn the formal curriculum. The students are subordinate to them, but in many cases are much less interested in school books than in their classmates and informal activities. The teacher then must coerce the students into obedience and learning". (1978; 15)

For this and other reasons, Pietrofesa and Vriend (1970; 32) feel that,

"What youth needs in the school is a haven where they can work things through for themselves, a place free from condemnation and guilt feelings and where they can reflect on all they are being told". (1970; 32)

These authors feel that 'the counsellor' can provide such a setting and that he should represent primarily the counselee and help him to grow towards being a fully functioning individual. It is quite obvious that the above writers see the Guidance and Counselling service as necessary in order for the individual in the spirit of Aristotle, *"to actualize his potential"*, so that the function of the school can be achieved.

2.1.8. Shertzer and Stone in their work, *Fundamentals of Guidance* (1971) discuss the functions of education and regard guidance as an essential aid to educators. They support their point by listing three

primary functions of education.

(1) The Developmental Function of Education. Education, they maintain, has a responsibility to develop the *"unique qualities of each individual. It should enhance the individualistic skills in the arts, science, social adjustment and personal philosophy as well as skills in vocational endeavours"*. (1971; 44)

(2) The Differentiating Function of Education. Shertzer and Stone believe that differences in abilities, interests and purposes of students crystallize as the individual matures. They are of opinion that it is imperative that educators recognize that there can be no single and uniform programme for all students.

(3) The third function of education in the opinion of Shertzer and Stone is its Integrating Function.
"A major function of education is to contribute in so far as possible, to the cultural integration of students ... Society depends in part upon education to develop in pupils a common core of shared beliefs, attitudes, values and underlying knowledge". (1971; 44)

These authors also agree that other institutions - the home, church, etc. have equal responsibility in this regard. But they see Guidance both as a concept and as a service, which focusses upon youth and their future. They see it as essentially operating within education and it has as its content the individual.

"While every teacher is implored to see each pupil as a distinct individual, Guidance personnel are education's insurance that the individual will not be submerged in the group". (1971; 45)

2.1.9. Conclusion.

The foregoing references have shown something of the need for a Guidance and Counselling service, within education, to assist in the implementation of its functions. The main core of the above thinking, which in fact describes the educational setting for Guidance and Counselling, is the concern for the individual, as a total or whole person. This is the soil in which personnel services have developed in the United States of America, Great Britain and in the Republic of South Africa.

2. Summary of the Societal Forces and Influences that are important to the School Counsellor in Contemporary Western Society.

Pages 54-73

A. An Analysis of the Deep-seated Societal Forces and Influences of Importance to the School Counsellor.

- Ideas of Margaret Mead
- Ideas of Brewer
- Ideas of Traxler
- Ideas of Cicourel and Kituse

Economic factors - conclusion.

B. An Analysis of Specific Sociological Forces of Importance to the School Counsellor.

- Change in Function of Church and Family.
- Views of Munson and others.
- Expanding Population
- Work
- Leisure
- Affluence
- The Generation Gap
- Job Mobility
- The Disadvantaged
- Change in Family

Divorce
Longevity

Summary and Conclusion.

2.2 Societal Forces and Influences that are Important to the School Counsellor in Contemporary Western Society.

"World-wide rapid air travel and globe-encircling television satellites have turned us into one community in which events taking place on one side of the earth become immediately and simultaneously available to peoples everywhere else". (Margaret Mead 1970; 95)

"The Sociology of Education is concerned with the environment of man - its society, its structure and organization and the forces within it that shape its nature". (Munson 1971; 22)

In order to understand the underlying reasons for Guidance and Counselling in Education, it is necessary to take account of some of the factors that influence mankind. The writer will consider the opinions of some relevant authors.

2.2.1. An Analysis of the 'Deep-seated Sociological Forces.

Margaret Mead in an effort to clarify what is happening in the contemporary world states,

"The key question is this: What are the new conditions that have brought about the revolt of Youth right around the world?" (1970; 94)

She is of opinion that the first of these is the emergence of a world community.

"For the first time human beings throughout the world in their information about one another and responses to one another have become a community that is united by shared knowledge and danger". (1970; 94)

This is so even if the world community lacks political unity. Margaret Mead's sociological analysis contributes to the understanding of the

more manifest reasons for Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in the western world. Her contention is that numerous factors have contributed to change in outlook. These include a new outlook due to the exploration of the solar system. This she maintains *"transcends all earlier intellectual and scientific accomplishments"*. Pupil X can have the ambition to be a Space Scientist - a reality which has no parallel in history. Other changes which have resulted in new attitudes and better health (although famine is still a factor in some areas of the world) are the development of food resources on a world wide scale. Due to rapid air travel, the oranges of South Africa, rich in vitamin C can be transported to the countries in the North, with direct benefit to their school-going population. Better health results. The medical revolution is a change of great significance, particularly that aspect, which has reduced the pressure of population increase. The main aim of the latter research was to limit population explosion. This had effects of far reaching social consequences.

> *"Women no longer need to devote themselves completely to reproductivity. This in turn affects women's future and the future rearing of children"*. (*Ibid* 1970; 95)

Margaret Mead stresses that all these changes have occurred within a lifetime of one generation and the impact because of the rapid distribution of knowledge is world wide. It is her belief that all these factors contribute to the generation-gap, which in many families leads to misunderstanding and discord concerning the needs of each generation.

> *"Most parents are too uncertain to assert old dogmatisms. They do not know what to teach these children who are so different from what they themselves once were, and most children are unable to learn from parents and elders they will never resemble"*. (*Ibid* 1970; 107)

Margaret Mead's interpretation of the "Generation-Gap" is then that it is due to a lack of knowledge and not just due to age

difference. These problems, Margaret Mead contends affect some of the younger generation throughout the western world.

The foregoing points to the need for Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in contemporary society, in an attempt to understand (if not always to solve) the problems of some of today's youth. As Shertzer and Stone state,

> *"Guidance exists to aid students in understanding the variety, depth and breadth of personal experiences, the opportunities available and the choices open to them by helping them recognize, interpret and act upon their personal strengths and resources".* (1971; 43)

As long ago as 1942, J.M. Brewer was of opinion that Guidance had evolved in the United States of America because of the emphasis the American society places upon the individual. He maintains however, that the deep seated reasons for Guidance and Counselling in schools result from the following conditions.

(1) The Division of 'labor'.
(2) The Growth of Technology.
(3) The Attitudes of a Democratic Government.
(4) The Extension of Vocational Education. (1942; 3)

2.2.2. Traxler in his work *Techniques of Guidance* (1957; 3,4) has identified five divergent factors as contributing to the need for Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in the United States of America, as follows:

2.2.2.1. Humanitarian Movements.

The Guidance movement was encouraged by the humanitarian movements of the late 1800's and early 1900's in the United States of America. Immigrants who came into the cities were forced into slums and usually earned low wages. The humanitarian spirit, which stressed the regard for the welfare of man, was evidenced by the

assistance given by many to help the less fortunate. This led, in the United States of America, to philanthropists providing finance for the establishment of Frank Parson's Vocational Bureau in Boston in 1908. The movement spread to the schools, which were regarded as a logical place to give vocational training and information.

2.2.2.2. Religious Groups.

In the United States of America in the first quarter of the twentieth century, these sought to help the schools to work with youth so that they would be prepared to lead a moral life.

2.2.2.3. The Mental Health Movement.

Traxler maintained that The Mental Health Movement in the United States of America was founded in 1909 as a result of Clifford Beer's book, *A Mind that Found Itself* (1908). This movement sought to treat the mentally ill and promote the psychological viewpoint in the treatment of individuals. The committee later turned its attention to people suffering from less serious disorders. The movement then encouraged educators to become more sensitive to the deep insecurities and loss of identity prevalent among youth. 1)

2.2.2.4. "The Testing and Measurement" Movement.

Traxler was of opinion that the Guidance movement was encouraged by the new Testing and Measurement Movement - as a result of the work of Alfred Binet (1896) and the resulting Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale, revised by Terman (1957). The value of the measurement to Guidance was to stress the need for information about the individual.

2.2.2.5. Social Change.

The impact of two world wars, unemployment, depression and technological advances, child-labour laws and compulsory school

attendance and similar forces, drove thousands of young people to school, who had no marked desire to be there. This led to the expansion of curricula options.

> *"It was soon seen that increased personal attention was needed to help each individual marshall his assets, in order to find his way through school and the complex environment outside the school".* (Traxler 1957; 4)

2.2.2.6. Cicourel and Kitsuse (1963) in their work entitled, *The Educational Decision-Makers*, which is a critical study of the Guidance and Counselling system in an American high school comment on the boost given to the development of Guidance and Counselling in the United States as a result of the so-called 'crisis' in American education - the anxiety about falling behind in the East-West race for technological superiority, which began when the *Russians* launched their first *Sputnik* in 1957. These authors maintain that a great deal of attention has since been devoted to the identification of talent, in American schools. Cicourel and Kitsuse point out that the appointment of 'school counsellors' is in keeping with the emphasis on specialization in advanced industrial societies. Shertzer and Stone in the United States of America and Lytton and Craft in Britain are in general agreement with the above reasoning.

2.2.2.7. Some commentators give considerable eminence to the influence of *economic factors* on educational change. Leona Tyler has written of the United States,

> *"It is the combination of an extremely diversified industrial society with democratic ideals that makes Counselling necessary".* (1961; 51)

In Europe, Maurice Reuchlin's research conducted in 1964 entitled, *A Survey of Education in Europe with special reference to Pupil Guidance* examined *Pupil Guidance* (vocational and other forms) in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom - and showed

that despite diversifications in school systems, the main influence that made Guidance and Counselling necessary in all schools in Europe arose from the fact that,

> *"Behind them all lies technical progress and that form of social progress we call the democratization of Education".* (Reuchlin 1964; 251)

The sociological forces behind "pupil guidance" are seen by Reuchlin as effort to promote measures to reduce the educational inequalities resulting from the environment, which are

> *"so deplored by the defenders of democracy and which are detrimental to the wider recruitment demanded by the economy".* (1964; 253)

In England, Lytton and Craft (1969) are of opinion

> *"that the concern to involve parents to raise aspirations and reduce wider achievement, to improve teaching techniques and the structure of the curriculum, might well be considered to demonstrate concern with educational productivity".* (1969; 13)[2)]

The same authors state that researchers Blang and Woodhall (1968) have attempted to measure the productivity of secondary schools.

Taylor (1967 cited by Craft; 14) argues that in England comprehensive education with its more flexible arrangements for developing and identifying talent may be (contemporary) society's more appropriate response to the changing social structure. Craft is of opinion that the influences of both political ideology and of post-war difficulties has influenced the *"coming of Guidance and Counselling"* (1969; 14)

As early as 1959 *The Crowther Report* in England saw education as an investment as well as a basic human right and as a social service. *The Robbins Report* (1963) saw education in England

as an investment in the Nation's future, but observed that the *"goal is not productivity as such, but the good life that productivity makes possible"*.

Discussing basic causal relationships, Craft and Lytton ask,

> *"Is our present concern for the individual as a result of the shortage of skill? And is the humanitarian justification of comprehensive education and of guidance and counselling a corollary of the balance of payments problem? Or do our economic problems arise out of an imperfect egalitarianism, an inefficient talent search, wasteful and unproductive educational practices?"* (1969; 14)

The authors mentioned above conclude that the relationship between education and the economy is of vital importance - from all aspects. In Britain the proportion of the Gross National Product spent on education has gradually increased. The same trends exist in other Western Democracies, e.g. United States of America and the Republic of South Africa. The increase in the expenditure on education in Russia since 1917 has also been well documented.

2.2.2.8. Conclusion.

From the opinions of the above authors, it can be seen that the development of Guidance and Counselling is without a doubt related to political ideology, unprecedented technological advances, economic pressures and changes in the social structure in Western countries. These reasons are only evident through searching societal analysis. As Gross points out in his work *Counsellors under Fire* (cited by Shertzer 1971; 109) when giving the justification for Guidance and Counselling,

> *"The Economic justification is that a jobless man put to work is a man no longer on the welfare rolls. The humanitarian justification is that help ought to be given to those who cannot help themselves. The educational*

justification is that it is through education and training that men change and can join and participate fully in our society".

2.2.3. An Analysis of Specific Sociological Forces - Important to the School Counsellor.

In an effort to identify factors necessitating Guidance and Counselling in institutions of education, cognisance must also be taken of the more specific reasons for its introduction. Many writers have stated simply that Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools have become necessary in the twentieth century because of the change in the function of the Family and the Church. Previously both these institutions had been more active and influential in inculcating attitudes and responsibilities into individuals.

In early America, Britain and in the Republic of South Africa, history has shown that the smaller community with its wider area of primary relationships provided a training ground for inter-personal relations.

"With the decline of the close, large Family, with increasing urbanization and its corresponding decrease in primary relations, and with the increasing complexity of social and political life in general, the Family and the Church are no longer adequate to assume the entire responsibility for the training in Life-adjustment". (Patterson 1961; 7)

Harold L. Munson (1971; 22) identifies several social forces which necessitate the provision of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools and attention will now be drawn to these.

2.2.3.1. An Expanding Population.

Munson regards population growth throughout the world, despite efforts to control it, as one of the most pressing societal problems. He cites the population growth in the United States of

America as an example.

In 1940 the population of the United States of America was approximately 131 million; in 1950, 150 million; in 1960, 178 million; in 1968, 200 million. Writing in 1971 Munson was of opinion that by 1980 the population of the United States of America would total 250 million, an increase of about 25 percent from the 1968 figure. In the year 2 000 it was projected, the population would be about 350-360 million.

Population increase accentuates problems in such areas as traffic management, highway construction, housing requirements, hospital accommodation and provision of educational facilities. It highlights deeper issues such as birth control, food production, pollution, and the need for more teachers to cope with the increasing school population.

> *"This is the kind of world that the youth who are now in school have to face".* (Munson 1971; 22)

In the Republic of South Africa the population increase is more evident among the non-white section of the population than among whites. Family planning clinics have been established to educate all sections of the population on contraceptive devices to limit family size.

2.2.4. The Changed Nature of Work.

Historically, work has been the means whereby man has been able to feed and maintain himself. Change has caused man to formalize his work role, not only as a means of survival but as a means of establishing his identity and status.

In the last quarter of the twentieth century the secondary school has great responsibility in regard to the future career of each pupil. Throughout the western world, it has become necessary

to attain a high standard in school leaving examinations in order to gain admission to universities and Technikons. To this end the actual teaching process needs to be supplemented by a sound counselling service to ensure the correct choice of courses; to give advice on study methods; and to assist pupils who have personal difficulties that may impede their progress. This service must also include vocational guidance and information concerning the diverse job opportunities within the various professions as well as the skilled and semi-skilled occupations.

> *"Freedom of choice of an occupation requires that the individual have adequate information about the various possible alternatives".* (Patterson 1968; 184)

In view of the importance of the correct choice of occupation, school counsellors could, for example, arrange for documentary films on all aspects of the world of work, so that the school population are kept abreast with new developments and opportunities, so that they know the details about a particular job or profession they intend to pursue.

There is no doubt that Munson's point (the need to know about the diverse work opportunities in contemporary society) is one of the reasons for Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools. Lectures by specialists in various fields could be given to the adolescent school population, who need to be informed that mere interest in a particular occupation is insufficient to qualify for admission to a course. Aptitude and ability have to be present, as well as the correct choice of school subjects, e.g. in South Africa mathematics is a prerequisite for Medicine or Engineering. For a legal degree a knowledge of Latin is desirable. A high percentage pass in the matriculation or equivalent university entrance examination is essential to gain admission to these faculties. The school counsellor must make these facts clear to the pupils concerned. It is clear that counselling in secondary schools can have a great influence on career patterns.

> *"It goes without saying that in vocational counselling,*

the counsellor does not use occupational information to direct the client/pupil into a particular field of work ... but only in his exploration and consideration of various occupational choices". (Patterson 1965; 185)

Munson's view of work as a basic requirement is shared by Reuchlin (1964). He contends that because work is a basic requirement of Western society, the need for a service to counsel pupils is essential, if equal education for all is to be a reality in countries that claim they are true democracies. He is of opinion that,

"A choice of a school course and its vocational consequences, have become too complicated for many families, with the result that the school has in some cases had to take over responsibilities which traditionally belonged to the Family". (1964; 253)

In the Republic of South Africa on the recommendation of the Human Sciences Research Council, the Government made provision for the introduction of a Guidance and Counselling service in the National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967.[3)] In 1980 a commission of enquiry has been appointed to democratize education in order to include all sections of the population, so that the position of the disadvantaged can be improved. In South Africa one of the key factors is the critical skill shortage and the over-supply of unemployed unskilled workers. More educational facilities and better ones are required to overcome this problem.

It is evident from the foregoing that the need to work in the contemporary complex Western world, is one of the sociological forces, that can challenge the school into action and stimulate the growth of vocational and other forms of guidance. This is necessary in order to obtain a workforce with appropriate training to man the economy. This also means the need to match output from secondary and tertiary educational institutions with the needs of the economy. India and parts of Africa, have an oversupply of would-be white-collar

workers, who would rather be unemployed than turn to what they see as lower status blue-collar work. Thus the effect of status on choice of occupation is evident.

2.2.5. Leisure.

Another important factor in today's world is the satisfactory use of leisure. Technology has changed man's work routine and has made available much more time for leisure. Modern man works shorter hours performing more highly specialized functions. Schools have therefore a dual responsibility, they have to teach the youth of today both the need for maximum attainment and how to cope with new found leisure. Munson is of opinion that this need also has implications for secondary school guidance. It hinges on to the concept of social development, from the inter-actional aspects of *"getting along with others"* (1971; 272). It also concerns itself with

> *"social maturation and its relation and contribution to character formation ... and the individual nature of developing a social identity".* (1971; 272)

This assists students in their general development and the wise use of leisure and is regarded as an important part of their 'wider' education. In group counselling classes the school counsellor could encourage the cultivation of 'outside interests' and hobbies, which would fill leisure time and promote mental health.

2.2.6. Affluence.

Both Munson (1971) and Shertzer and Stone (1971) regard affluence as another basic causal factor making Guidance and Counselling necessary in schools in so-called 'elite areas'.

In the United States of America, family income has risen sharply. In the affluent group some have found *"the satiation of materalism wanting"* (Munson 1971; 26). People in this category have turned the advantage of affluence into disadvantage.

Researchers and practising social workers have found this to be the case in other Western countries. The result for some is a drug and narcotics problem; crime and even delinquency; family discord and tension. These are problems which schools in so-called elite areas cannot ignore. The writer, working as a school counsellor for a period of four years (in a socially privileged area) found that problems occurred when affluent parents did not devote sufficient time to their teenage families. This "neglect" led to behaviour patterns which deviated from the norm expected by the school. An essential dimension of counselling in such cases is to counsel the parents as well as the pupil.

2.2.7. Other factors that Munson regards as sociological phenomena that need the attention of a school counsellor are, The Generation Gap, Geographic and Job Mobility and the Disadvantaged. Munsen is not the only author who mentions these concepts as causal factors for school Guidance and Counselling services. Margaret Mead (1970) and Stark (1970) have both written on the generation gap and numerous authors have written on the other factors. Munson observes that the traditional thirty-three years being the accepted difference in age between one generation and another, no longer applies as change is so rapid and so frequent. Munson is of opinion that a very few years' difference in age can mean a completely new set of attitudes and style of living between one age group and another. He claims that "the security" given to women by the use of "the pill", has changed attitudes concerning the need to marry. This has in its turn, caused a threat to family security as more men and women in the United States of America have extra-marital relationships. Counselling is needed at the school level to point out the pros and cons of the use of "the pill" and the consequences of its indiscriminate use.

The writer believes that in the Republic of South Africa, differences in styles of living do not vary as much as in urban America, but unless comparative research is undertaken, it is not possible to be sure. It has also been assumed that rural communities are more stable than urban communities, but that has also to be proven

by empirical research. However what is certain is that counselling on Family Life is necessary in secondary schools in the Western world.

2.2.8. Job Mobility.

Job mobility is without a doubt a new trend in Western society. In the United States of America statistics regarding job mobility indicate that people are moving in increasing numbers. The figures indicate that about one out of four families move each year. It does not require much 'sociological imagination' (Berger 1970, Denzin 1970, Mills) to appreciate that change of school, curricula, home environment and general circumstances, may require the "help" of the school counsellor re adaptation to the new situation in which the family finds itself. Employers, particularly the larger firms, tend to move employees with far greater frequency. This is also true of academic staff, who particularly in the United States of America move from one position to another as opportunity for improvement presents itself. This tendency is not so marked in the Republic of South Africa due to a smaller population and lesser number of "job opportunities". This would continue to be the case even now that Job Reservation has been removed from the statute book because the latest population figures for the Republic of South Africa according to the preliminary 1980 Census figures are 23 894 000 excluding Transkei and Bophuthatswana which is considerably less than the United States of America's *1978 July Mid-Year Population Figures* of 218 502 000 excluding over one million absent overseas in the armed forces. (Source *Europe Year Book 1979, 1599).* Therefore due to the discrepancy in population, Job Mobility would vary considerably between the United States of America and the Republic of South Africa, although not necessarily on a pro rata basis. (As yet no research on this has been undertaken.)

2.2.9. The Disadvantaged.

Counselling is without a doubt particularly required by the Disadvantaged. This term can have a variety of meanings, but it essentially refers to a human condition characterized by inequality, lack of opportunity and social injustice. In American society the dominant group being the middle class, the concept of disadvantage finds its base in the cultural norms of this class.

Disadvantage can be economic, cultural, physical, psychological or due to racial discrimination. Whatever the category this is a great concern of education in a democracy and therefore of the Guidance and Counselling services of schools, in such countries.

The importance of attending to the needs of the disadvantaged through counselling is unquestionable. Disadvantage can lead to unemployable persons due to educational and cultural deprivation.

The category of the disadvantaged is multi-factorial and it is not possible to discuss it fully in this dissertation. It is obviously an area of concern for thinking administrators of education and therefore for schools. Amelioration programmes depend on the policy of the government in power. In the Republic of South Africa social inequalities can best be understood in the context of the history of the country. Social and educational inequalities have led to problems, which are now receiving concerted attention. The ideal in the eyes of many South Africans is to equalize the amount of money spent on education, in order to provide satisfactory facilities for all sections of the population - including a Guidance and Counselling service for the entire secondary schoolgoing population.

2.2.10. The Family as a Changing Social Unit.

This is a basic factor underlying the need for the counselling of the adolescent schoolgoing population in Western democracies in the last quarter of the twentieth century.

For most of human history the family was an interdependent producing unit, with members dependent on each other and even children from an early age had useful economic roles. Mother made the clothes, children helped in the home or garden or field, father hunted or farmed or was a merchant, etc.

Today production takes place outside the home. The family is a consuming unit and in the main not a producing unit. Children are unproductive economic liabilities (often in the early twenties they are still in tertiary education). The family is no longer interdependent to the same degree; geographically members are scattered during the day (and at night sometimes) in other institutions. Role changes in the family produce role conflict and uncertainty. Some members of the family become closely affiliated to their peer group. Problems can result from this freedom of direct parental control. Other phenomena such as "the working mother" (outside the home) and "the travelling father" can cause problems. Yet the basic needs of love and security of children from their parents remains unchanged.

> *"The nature of Family Life may have changed but the societal expectations of the Home and the Family remain essentially unchanged".* (Munson 1971; 36)

Variations in parental occupations are not without practical difficulties. Many parents in this category may be conscious of their obligations as parents, but are not physically present to enforce these obligations, e.g. John or Jane come home from school to an empty flat or house. Schools need to be aware of these difficulties of the contemporary family. It is well known and constantly documented - as Margaret Mead writes,

> *"Without adult care the infant will die in a few hours. Without adult care the child will never learn to speak. Without the experience of trust, the child will never become a trusting member of society, able to love and care for others".* (1970; 112)

But the crux of the matter is that the adolescent requires with

modifications the same care, love and security from parents if he or she is to become a well balanced person in society. However, due to change, family life does not always provide these essential ingredients. The shortfall creates problems within the adolescent, and it is then that a school counsellor with sympathetic understanding and common sense can be an invaluable aid to a teenager in this category.

As previously mentioned, another factor of concern to the family in Western society is that views in regard to marriage and family ideals are being challenged. In the United States of America, Great Britain and in the Republic of South Africa, divorce is on the increase. It is evident that for many couples, marriage does not represent a permanent relationship. This attitude can shake the very foundations of our societal views. Many writers are in agreement with Munson that in the United States of America and the Western world,

> *"Marriage is still regarded as one of the most sacred institutions of our culture".* (1971; 39)

The value of counselling in secondary schools in the Western world on account of the family as a changing social unit, is not only to counsel adolescents who are affected by this condition, but to teach the future adults - those presently in secondary schools, the value of a sound family life so they can cope more adequately than their parents, despite the ever-changing world.

2.2.11. Divorce.

Divorce is always more difficult where children are involved and this type of family breakdown can cause a major disruption in the progress of school work. This is an area that cannot be neglected by the school. Counselling can change this period in an adolescent's life, from being a time of major emotional upset to understanding and final acceptance of the situation. Group counselling can educate the youth of today, about the value of stable permanent relationships

within the family. This and other social pathologies will be further referred to in a later chapter.

2.2.12. Respect for the Aged - Due to Longevity.

Improved medical knowledge has led in the twentieth century to longer life for a larger proportion of the population. This century has also witnessed a change in attitude towards retirement and old age. Security is provided by retirement annuities and medical insurance schemes as well as other forms of pension, e.g. State pensions. A percentage of older people are financially independent and as a result no longer rejoin their nuclear families. Children are denied relationships with older relatives that in former times provided a sense of security.

> *"They knew and understood both the gracious and agonizing aspects of the older years".* (Munson 1971; 40)

This contact is now in many cases absent and if it is there, in many cases modern youth do not *"value the opinions of the aged".* It seems that all aspects of family life should be included in school Guidance programmes, including Group Counselling programmes on respect for aged members of the family. 4) 5)

2.2.13. Summary and Conclusions.

There is no doubt that before considering contemporary definitions of "Guidance" and "Counselling" it was necessary to cite the above mentioned basic social factors that have led to the requirement for school counselling.

These factors have brought about changes in contemporary Western society that shape and influence our lives. These forces affect the school going population in the crucial years of adolescence and their presence results in the need for a Guidance and Counselling service in secondary schools.

The writer sees fit to pose the questions: Are the advantages of this technologically orientated society worth the penalties that family life has had to pay as a result of this century's innovations? Was the slower age more stable? Will society change at such a rate that 1980 by comparison with 2000 will appear staid and old fashioned in outlook and action?

Toffler in his work *Future Shock* states that it is necessary

> *"to adopt a new stance towards the future and a new sensitive awareness of the role it plays in the present".* (1978; 14)

This statement applies to vocational information which when given to the youth of today, must take cognisance of the needs of tomorrow. It also implies that there is no room for complacency about the present as the present is busy changing as it is rapidly passing and becoming the past. In short, counsellors need to teach the youth of today flexibility in outlook and the need to be able to adapt to change.

Margaret Mead states in her work *Culture and Commitment* (1970; VIII):

> *"An essential and extraordinary aspect of man's present state is that, at this moment we are approaching a world wide culture".*

Today she states,

> *"... the whole world is so closely linked by inter-communications that Youth have an experience their elders never had. They face a new era, one shaped by the Bomb, Satellites, jet flight, technology and population explosion".*

These are the forces that today's youth face, yet despite such change, their own basic needs of security from their families remain the same as in previous generations. Counselling's major

task is to ensure that the forces of change do not threaten basic needs. It is reasonable to suggest that if society is to adjust to a changing world, then the homeostasis of family life must remain in equilibrium. If change is so great that it upsets the functions of the normal family, then its negative effects will outweigh all its advantages. Counselling together with other "teaching and helping" professions must endeavour to make the youth of today think about values. Then twentieth century man will not have allowed technology to become his master.

Having considered the place of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in terms of the functions of education and the societal forces and influences that are important to the school counsellor in contemporary Western society, it is now the writer's intention to turn attention to the contemporary definitions of Guidance and Counselling from the American and British literature. Authors of a system of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in the Republic of South Africa are indebted to American and British theories and practices, although there are obvious ideological differences. *"The Report of the Committee for differentiated education and guidance in connection with a national system of education ... with reference to school guidance as an integrated service of the system of education for the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa"* (1971) stated that:

> *"13.1 The American guidance terminology will be used as a lead-up to the terminology used in South Africa and South West Africa".* (1971; 112)

The report defines 'counseling' as the American writers have done.[6] The position of British terminology and that of other European countries was also considered by the committee.

Definitions of Guidance and Counselling in American literature and as expressed by British authors will now be considered, since they have had a profound influence on the system of Guidance and Counselling presently used in secondary schools in the Republic of South Africa.

2.3 Contemporary Definitions of Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America.

There is no doubt that the Americans have been the leaders in the field of educational guidance and counselling. They have published a plethora of books and articles in an effort to define the field.

This fact was acknowledged in a publication entitled, *Guidance and Counselling in British Schools*, edited by Lytton and Craft, in which Lytton states:

> *"In the preceding chapter of this symposium, reference to American literature and practice in counselling abound and one becomes impressed with how much we in Britain are indebted to that country for the concepts, the careful elaboration of techniques and the very terminology we employ in this new profession".* (Craft and Lytton 1968; 103)

2.3.1. Similarly in the Republic of South Africa in a publication of papers delivered at the Twelfth Annual Congress of *The South African Association for the Advancement of Education* held at Cape Town in 1974, papers on Guidance and Counselling were presented in which extensive references were made to the American literature by Professor H. Shiels, Professor A.L. Behr and C.J.J. Reyneke. 7)

2.4 Guidance and Counselling: The Sociological Perspective.

Before considering the psychologically orientated definitions of guidance and counselling the sociological perspective must be taken into account. There is no doubt that Weinberg's view that,

> *"... sociological inquiry uncovers factors that help to explain the structure of student deviation".* (1969; 140)

deserves attention. Sociologists are no longer repelled by the

thought of their research being turned into "applied programs". Most teachers and school counsellors who are engaged in seeking answers to overcome the difficulties of pupils, are aware of certain operative factors. They realize that pupil performance can be affected by a broken home, a working mother, poverty or unemployment due to the economic position in a country. They know that these factors can affect behaviour. Therefore it must be recognized that behaviour which is explained by psychology can be caused by factors which are sociological in orientation. Therefore, factors as a result of sociological analysis must be taken into account (e.g. adolescent behaviour and in consequence academic attainment can be affected by a change in the financial stability of the family). Cognisance must be taken of such issues if effective counselling is to be achieved.

2.4.1. Counsellors who insist upon relying only on psychological explanations for behaviour should be aware that sociologists are looking for explanations for behaviour, e.g. investigations have been made into mental health centres,

> "... *and mental hygiene clinics to explore the social basis of mental illness*". (Weinberg 1969; 142)

Not that school counsellors deal with abnormal persons. On the contrary the literature emphasizes that school counselling is appropriate for adolescents who are basically sound in mind and body, but who need help at certain stages of their development in order to promote sound mental health (Jones 1977).

As long ago as 1958, Hollingshead and Redlich wrote in their work *Social Class and Mental Illness* that in their view persons of different social classes emerge with different neurotic patterns and that the treatment of these persons can also be differentiated by class background.

Yet another example of the need for counsellors to take cognisance of broad social phenomena was as follows. World War II

which was a conflict between nations led to change in the lives of families. Many children became alienated from their parents, through wartime disasters, and refugee children were confused and insecure. The counsellors helping to rehabilitate these children had to take cognisance of the factors that caused the emotional disturbance. Surface psychological techniques would have had no effect if the Red Cross personnel had not taken into account the effect of the war situation on their personal histories. It was not a family problem within the family structure that caused the breakdown in behaviour but the breakdown in the structure of society which was the basic fault.

2.4.2. The writer is of opinion that both sociology and psychology have 'human beings' as their common factor. Sociology deals with the structure of human society. Psychology deals with the effect of the change in the structure of human society on behaviour. In its widest connotation if war disturbs the peace of an area, the structure of society is disturbed and mass trauma results for all concerned. Similarly in the smaller unit of society, e.g. the family. If the structure of the family is normal (e.g. caring parents, sound economic position, good relationships within the unit), it is not difficult for the adolescent to conform and progress. However, if the structure of the family is broken due to death of a parent, divorce or economic difficulties the equilibrium is upset and trauma may result for the adolescent. [8)] Conflict may cause behaviour that disturbs operative norms,

> *"that is, norms that are sanctioned in such a way that violators suffer some penalty in the group and those who conform are rewarded".* (Johnson 1962; 8)

Counselling is required when there is a deviation from expected norms (at times).

The adolescent at school has to conform to the norms of two institutions in addition to the sub-culture which is the peer

group. These are the norms of the family, i.e. the home, and the norms of the school. At times the norms of the home and the requirements of the school conflict. This may lead to a deviation from the norm at school, which can manifest itself in a behaviour problem at school. The pupil is then punished for violating school rules for example, not doing set homework.

> *"The school in a democracy has as its basic purpose the education and development of all pupils for individual fulfillment".* (Pietorefesa and Vriend 1970; 167)

This is the goal of the school. The following case, told to the writer when investigating school B.3 described in Part II of this dissertation will lead to the writer's definition of counselling from the sociological point of view.

2.4.3. Case Study.

X did not do his set homework. He was punished and sent to detention every Saturday for two hours for a month. There was no improvement so he was referred to the school counsellor. The following was found to be the cause.

The Republic of South Africa was experiencing an economic recession (1977). Large firms closed down. X's father had been employed in the timber department of such a firm. Since he was unable to find employment he began selling lengths of timber from his own home. He required his son's physical help after school. The basic causes of the boy not doing his set homework were as follows:

1. Sheer physical exhaustion after meeting his father's demands.
2. The father regarded the importance of his son doing his homework as secondary to his own dire economic need. It was a question of priorities and the father's attitude towards education.
3. The boy, aged fifteen in Std. VIII, was ashamed and sensitive

about his home situation. He was not prepared to confide in his teacher and give the true reason. His work started 'slipping' and he became aggressive as a defence mechanism.

The need for counselling came as a result of role conflict, which was caused by the unemployment of the father. This resulted in the boy deviating from the norms of the school, e.g. not doing his set homework.

2.4.4. Therefore a definition of counselling must take account of the sociological causation of behaviour. The writer makes so bold as to suggest that one way of defining Guidance and Counselling is as follows:

> *"Guidance refers to the service in which Counselling is the process. At times the counsellor assists pupils who have deviated from accepted norms. Adjustment can only be effected if both the sociological and the psychological causes for the deviation from the norm are considered in order to effect adjustment in behaviour.*

This particular definition will not apply in all cases because not all structural breakdowns lead to deviant behaviour. Some adolescents continue to conform despite difficulties, but in order to help the counsellee adjust or improve his position the counsellor needs to be aware of the sociological as well as the psychological aspects of the problem. Therefore the writer is firm in her belief that when defining counselling, the sociological as well as the psychological perspectives of reality must be taken into account.

The writer has found the work of Carl Weinberg (1969) reassuring to her own point of view. He acknowledged the importance of sociological analysis to Guidance and Counselling services in his work entitled, *Social Foundations of Educational Guidance*, when he stated that,

"although the goals of educational guidance can range from helping students make career decisions to selecting music for emotional therapy, sociological knowledge is necessary for success in every phase of guidance activity". (Weinberg 1969)

Other writers, e.g. Shertzer and Stone (1971) remark on the importance of social stratification and state that while

"... it is not the purpose here to describe the sociological view of the social classes but rather to indicate they exist and that teachers and counsellors must realize their existence and act accordingly if they are to perform their functions effectively". (1971; 14)

Pietrofesa and Vriend also recognize this. They state that counsellors *"tend to be pragmatists"* adopting an operational attitude of practicality and they admit that,

"future counsellors are exposed to a gamut of theoretical and methodological knowledge drawn from the social and behavioural sciences". (1971; 5)

2.4.5. Therefore it can be seen that within the Guidance and Counselling service, the counsellors share a rich plurality of theoretical knowledge, which is of importance to their discipline. This knowledge however must contain both the sociological and psychological interpretations of reality if their 'counselling' is to be of value to the counselee.

2.5 Having considered the application of sociological analysis to Guidance and Counselling the remainder of the chapter which refers to the <u>American literature</u> is organized as follows:

1. The view of Patterson (1962) and some of the authors he cites will be considered.

2. The ideas of Pietrofesa and Vriend (1970) are put forward.
3. The above will be followed by Shertzer and Stone's (1971) interpretation of Guidance and Counselling.
4. Finally, the views of Munson (1971) and his colleagues will complete the sample of the views of the American writers on the meaning of Guidance and Counselling. This will lead on to a discussion of the opinions of English writers and their interpretation of Guidance and Counselling. [9)]

2.5.1. The Views of Patterson and his Colleagues.

According to Patterson's view:

"A basic assumption of counseling and guidance services (in secondary schools) is that all individuals from time to time require specific individual or personalized help of a professional nature, in understanding the world and themselves in relationship to the world, and in dealing with the problems with which they are continually faced". (1962; 18)

He acknowledges the fact that every individual receives assistance of various kinds from others - parents, relatives, friends and teachers. This help is often useful; it may sometimes be harmful even though well-intentioned, because such help in many instances requires professional skill and competence.

2.5.1.1. Patterson tends to explain Guidance and Counselling rather than to define it. He puts forward the idea that counselling and guidance services are not directed towards normalizing the abnormal. They are provided mainly for the more or less normal individual.

"To assist him in functioning optimally in developing his potentialities and in achieving to his capacity. The goal is to increase the individual's achievement and his contribution to society through the use of all his abilities and his capacities". (1962; 18)

The terms 'self-realization' and 'self-actualization' have been used to designate this goal, the latter imply the development of adequate social relationships. The goal of personal and social development includes the concept of personal responsibility. Matthewson uses the term *personal-social maturity* (1955 cited by Patterson 1962; 19). Patterson himself refers to it as *responsible independence.*

2.5.2. A second major assumption of counselling and guidance services is that the individual is self-autonomous, and as such must be allowed self determinations of his behaviour. His freedom of choice must be recognised and respected. Patterson points out that,

> *"Without self-autonomy and freedom of choice, there would be no individual responsibility for behaviour and no opportunity for the development of responsible independence".* (Patterson 1962; 20)

2.5.3. A third basic assumption of "counseling" and guidance services suggested by Patterson is confidence in the individual's capacities to resolve his own problems and to make adequate choices when given the opportunity.

It must be realized, he points out, that Counselling and Guidance is not a means or method of control or discipline. It is not to be used by the school administration to impose its wishes and decisions on students. It cannot be used to persuade students to do what someone else desires them to do.

2.5.4. Vocational Counselling.

Patterson stresses the meaning of Vocational Counselling. He poses the question in a democracy such as the United States of America: *"Do the needs of society for particular talents and skills in specific occupations dominate educational and vocational counselling, or are the interests and desires of the individual recognized as primary?* In other countries, manpower needs dominate

counselling.. Patterson is of opinion that in the United States of America only in the emergency of actual warfare, would this freedom of the individual be surrendered and the armed forces assign manpower, where it is required by the State. He, however, admits that in the United States of America, the prevalent manpower shortage (as a result of the Russian sputnik) focussed attention on the shortage of manpower in scientific and technical fields. This resulted in increased attention to guidance and counselling. Nevertheless vocational counselling and guidance in the schools in the United States of America is the process by which the individual makes his own free choice of an occupation or career.

2.5.4.1. Conant in *Education in a Divided World* (1948; 159) noted that a democracy, unlike a totalitarian state, cannot force its youth into what the authorities consider the appropriate groove of advanced education. He adds that, *"In this republic of free-men, no official can decree what line of study must be pursued".*

Therefore it can be seen that the official governmental policy in the United States of America in respect of vocational counselling is a liberal one and takes cognisance of the wishes of the individual. The dilemma is, does one produce a glut in a section of the job market and unemployment if no attention is paid to job opportunities?

2.5.4.2. The American Personnel and Guidance Association in a statement of policy in respect of vocational guidance stated:

> *"Counsellors have a profound obligation to individuals and to our society to assist students in making their career and educational plans in terms of their potentialities for exercise in a free society".*
> *(Personnel Guidance Journal,* 1958, 36; 454-455)

Patterson, however, does state that while there is freedom of choice of an occupation, the young person may need assistance in making an intelligent and appropriate choice and in planning and

preparing for a career in the field of his choice.

2.5.4.3. Authors on the definition and meaning of counselling e.g. Shertzer and Stone (1971), Patterson (1962), Conant (1948) and Munson (1971) all state clearly that vocational counselling in the United States of America is considered to have begun with the work of Frank Parsons in Boston in 1908. His advice to youth is still respected. In his work, *Choosing a Vocation*, he advised that in a wide choice of vocations there were three broad factors:

1. a clear understanding of yourself, your aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations;
2. a knowledge of the requirements and conditions of success, advantages and disadvantages, compensation, opportunities and prospects in different lines of work; and
3. true reasoning on the relationship of these two groups of facts.

He emphasized that the responsibility of the choice rested with the client (Parsons 1909; 5).

2.5.4.3.1. Super, author of *The Psychology of Careers* defines vocational guidance,

> *"as the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world of work to test this concept against reality and to convert it into reality with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society".* (1962; 134)

It is therefore apparent that vocational counselling is more than the matching of aptitudes, abilities and interests with job demands and requirements. Patterson offers yet another definition of counselling in respect of vocational counselling. He states that,

> *"Vocational 'counseling' is a process of assisting the person to develop an understanding of himself and of his environment and to integrate the two, to enable him*

to resolve problems, make choices and develop and carry out plans". (1962; 134)

The writer is in agreement with Patterson and Super that this requires more than the use and interpretation of tests and the providing of occupational information. It is the client centred vocational counselling approach that is of value. Super asks his client to ask himself:

"What sort of person do I think I am? How do I feel about myself as I think I am? What sort of person would I like to be? What are my aptitudes and interests? What can I do to reconcile my self-ideal with my real self? What outlets are there for me with my needs, values interests and aptitudes? How can I make use of these outlets?" (*op.cit.* 196, cited by Patterson 1962; 136)

2.5.4.4. Comment.

An entire thesis could be devoted to the questions and answers involved in the definition of Vocational Guidance alone. In this brief attempt at understanding and defining this part of school counselling the writer agrees with Patterson, Super, *et.al.* that one of the major areas of school counselling is vocational counselling. Vocational counsellors need to provide realistic and accurate information about careers, in order to prevent unrealistic vocational choices. Vocational development is part of general development. Vocational counsellors must be broadly trained and qualified in counselling and be well informed on vocations and professions in order to of use to secondary school pupils on the threshold of the world of work. They must also be aware of the new trends which can apply in the long term.

2.5.5. The Viewpoint of Pietrofesa and Vriend (1971).

Many other writers have attempted to define and clarify the use of the term Guidance and Counselling. Pietrofesa and Vriend

remark on this in their work *The School Counsellor as a Professional* (1970), and Shertzer and Stone (1971) have come to a similar conclusion. Both sets of authors remark on the numerous definitions that exist and both feel that, *"The counselor finds himself exposed to different and conflicting role expectations"* (Pietrofesa and Vriend 1970; 35). Dunlop (1965, cited by Pietrofesa and Vriend) for example, found that counsellors were viewed by parents as educational and vocational guidance specialists and therefore they should be 'advice-givers' in these areas. Bergstein and Grant (1961) reported that parents viewed this aspect of the work as more important than counselling students with personal-emotional problems. This view was also endorsed by Ketterman (1968) who reported that,

> *"The public (in the United States of America) supported more the counselor function of educational-vocational counseling, than personal counseling"*. (1968, cited by Pietrofesa 1970; 35).

2.5.6. The Views of Shertzer and Stone and their Colleagues.

Shertzer and Stone (1971; 40), Arbuckle (1968), Peters and Farewell (1967) and others, have attempted to define Guidance and Counselling. They have done this by attempting to clarify the usage of the term, by pointing out the distinctions implicit in the word "Guidance".

1. It can be used as a concept (mental image).
2. It can be used as an educational construct - by which is meant intellectual synthesis.
3. It can refer to an educational service.

For Arbuckle,[10] Peters and Farewell, conceptual guidance denoted the utilization of a point of view in order to help the individual; as an educational construct it referred to the provision of experiences that help pupils to understand themselves, and as a science it referred to procedures and processes organized to achieve a helping relationship.

2.5.6.1. Shertzer (1971) maintains that graduate students in 1971 collected over one hundred definitions of Guidance and Counselling from the literature in the United States of America. There was much overlap in the definitions and substantial agreement was evident.

For the latter reason in their text book, *Fundamentals of Guidance*, Shertzer and Stone made no attempt to *"supply a new definition or to play on words"*. They stated simply that throughout the volume,

> *"Guidance is a process of helping an individual to understand himself and his world"*. (1971; 40)

Shertzer qualifies this by stating that the key words require clarification and qualification. He offers the following explanation for the key words of the above definition.

Process is any phenomenon that shows continuous change over time, and the use of the word denotes that guidance is not a single event, but involves a series of actions or steps, progressing towards a goal.
Helping is defined as aiding, assisting or availing.
Individual refers to a pupil in the school setting.

More specifically (in agreement with Patterson) guidance is seen by Shertzer as the assistance given to "normal" students - those who need help with the events and concerns that occur during normal development. Shertzer explains the last part of the definition, *"to understand himself and his world"*, as meaning the following:

> *"The individual comes to know who he is as an individual; he becomes aware of his personal identity; he perceives the nature of his person; he experiences his world, the aggregate of his surroundings and the people with whom he comes into contact more deeply and completely"*. (1971; 40)

In order to clarify the term guidance even further, Shertzer explains the purpose of guidance as being a process through which the individual achieves greater awareness not only of who he is, but who he can become.

Carl Rogers [11] maintains that,

"The purpose of most of the helping professions, including guidance and counseling, is to enhance the personal development, the psychological growth towards a socialized maturity of its clients". (1961; 182)

2.5.6.2. The following list of the basic principles of guidance is given by Shertzer and Stone (1971; 51). They state that these are accepted by most authorities as characteristic of the guidance function. The sources from which these principles are drawn include Miller (1961); Cribbon (1951); Beck (1963); Wrenn (1959) and especially Kehas (1970). These sources are acknowledged by Shertzer and the writer is similarly indebted to Shertzer for tabulating them as follows:

Principle I: Guidance is concerned primarily and systematically with the personal development of the individual.

Principle II: The primary mode by which guidance is conducted lies in individual behavioural processes.

Principle III: Guidance is orientated towards co-operation and compulsion.

Principle IV: Guidance is based upon reorganizing the dignity and worth of the individual as well as his right to choose.

Principle V: Guidance is a continuous, sequential educational process.

2.5.6.3. Shertzer is of opinion that Wrenn (1973) in his work *The Philosophical and Psychological Bases* (41-44), has best summarized the above principles and has extracted the following injunctions, which are important in student personnel work. Briefly

they are:

1. See the learner totally.
2. Treat the student with dignity; respect his integrity and his rights to self-fulfillment.
3. Personnel work is concerned with the student's plans for the future as well as optimum living in the present.
4. "Counselors" must be advocates of individual differences in the school.
5. Personnel work depends upon a varied methodology, one that is fitted to the ends to be served.
6. The quality of the relationship between "counselor" and student and between the counselor and colleague are important.
7. Personnel services must remain in the central stream of educational effort - to attain to maximum ability.

2.5.6.4. Comment.

The writer has extracted the above injunctions from Wrenn's fuller summary of the *Principles of Guidance*, because each point clarifies further the meaning of counselling and the role of the counsellor, e.g. it is essential for the counsellor to see the "Learner" in his total situation and not judge him on one action or one examination result or whatever the case may be. Number five is sound advice to the counsellor and this injunction is supported by sociological theory, e.g. Maurice Natanson *et.al.* have recognized that in dealing with human beings each individual's circumstances are different. There are norms, but flexibility and allowing for variations between people is essential. This is known as the phenomenological approach to social reality, and implies that there must be flexibility in the counselling situation. Number seven is equally valuable. Unless personnel services remain in the central stream of education, administrators are "missing the point". *One may ask who the vast administrative machinery of educating the population is for?* It is for people. If their individual difficulties are not dealt with and given their rightful

place in the priorities of the educative process, the administrators have failed to grasp the realities of the situation, namely that education will not fulfill its function unless each individual pupil benefits from it. This can only be assured (in some measure) if provision is made in education for services to ensure that this is the case. True, some cope adequately, but many would fail because of the lack of opportunity to select purposes in life and to choose the means to accomplish these purposes.

The writer is in full agreement with the research of Shertzer and Wrenn on the main principles of guidance and counselling. By setting out these principles, the foregoing researchers have contributed to the understanding of the meaning of guidance and counselling, the clarification of which is the purpose of the writer in this chapter.

2.5.7. The Research of Munson (1971).

An examination of the American literature to seek definitions and the meaning of Guidance and Counselling would be grossly inadequate - without referring to the work of Harold L. Munson.

In his work *Foundations of Developmental Guidance* (1971), he adopts the approach that,

> *"Guidance is not and never should be a fixed function in education".* (1971; xi)

He puts forward *the developmental approach to guidance*, expanding it from a base that considers the individual and the society in which he will learn and mature. *He disagrees* with Shertzer that there is overlap and agreement by most writers who attempt to define 'Counseling'. He maintains that,

> *"if you enquire from ten people you get ten suggestions".* (1971;144)

Munson proceeds to put forward the definitions of the following

authors to illustrate his viewpoint.

2.5.7.1. Tolbert defines counselling as

"a personal, face to face relationship between two people, in which the 'counselor', by means of the relationship and his special competencies, provides a learning situation, in which the counselee, a normal sort of person, is helped to know himself and his present and possible future situations, so that he can make use of his characteristics and potentialities in a way that is both satisfying to himself and beneficial to society, and further, can learn how to solve future problems and meet future needs". (Introduction to Counseling 1959; 3)

2.5.7.2. Robert, Walz and Smith more concisely define

"counseling as ... purposeful communication in a personal (one-to-one) atmosphere of mutual acceptance and understanding". (1971; 71)

2.5.7.3. Stefflre's theories of 'counseling' (1965; 15) provide the following definition:

"Counseling denotes a professional relationship between a trained counselor and a client. This relationship is usually person to person, although it may sometimes involve more than two people, and it is designed to help the client understand and clarify his view of his life space so that he may make meaningful and informed choices consonant with his essential nature in those areas where choices are available to him".

The reason why the writer sees fit to include the above definition is that Stefflre's definition is a reminder that counselling can occur other than between two people. This is a situation which frequently arises in practice, e.g. the adolescent and his parents are present. The definition refers more to the

goals of counselling than to the relationship.

2.5.7.4. Munson prefers the definition put forward by Donald H. Blocher in his work, *Developmental Counseling* (1966; 5) in which he (Blocher) states:

> *"Developmental counseling ... aims at helping an individual become aware of himself and the ways in which he is reacting to the behavioral influences in his environment. It further helps him to establish some personal meaning for his behavior and to develop and clarify a set of goals and values for future behavior. Out of such awareness and understanding of his past learning, history and his environment, an individual is better able to identify those environmental influences, that will best facilitate the kind of future development that is goal orientated for him".* (1966; 5)

2.5.7.5. Munson's comment on the above, with which the writer concurs is that the definitions offer sufficient commonality to identify the relationship aspect of the function of "Counseling", and yet enough diversity to allow for some consideration of the process and goals.

2.5.7.6. Munson's View.

What is Munson's own view of counselling? He sees counselling as a "human relationship". He prefers this to the notion of a "helping relationship", and maintains that,

> *"we enter the relationship with the hope that it will be helping, but we know that we cannot always help, but we can always be human".* (1971; 116)

Munson next examines some of

> *"the ingredients that help to build a bond with another person".* (1971; 117)

2.5.7.6.1. *Caring.* It is important that the "counselor" cares. To care implies that

> *"you have some feeling for the other person - that you are concerned about him and his life ... You are willing to become involved with another person".*

This attitude presumes some measure of responsibility for developing and maintaining the relationship.

2.5.7.6.2. *Positive Regard.* That is, recognition of the worth and dignity of the other person.

2.5.7.6.3. *Openness.* This allows for the *counselee* to explore his own feelings and experiences within the limitations of his own defences and social forces ... leaving him to reveal those parts of himself and those facets of experience that he is able to communicate to another. The *counselor* can help the *counselee* become more able to risk authentic self disclosure. This openness is ever in process as the relationship evolves. The writer has found that in the secondary school particularly, the counselee may find it very difficult to discuss himself and his life. Many adolescents find it difficult to overcome the barrier of *reserve* which is characteristic of school life. It is possible that this reserve is only with older people and that there is freer discussion with peers or is it due to the fact that some people are in awe of their teachers?

2.5.7.6.4. *Genuineness.* To be genuine in the counseling relationship is to be real. This eliminates role playing or acting in the 'counseling' session. In the beginning counsellors often attempt to play the role of a 'counselor' (their perception of the role). It is only as they learn to use their real selves in a counselling relationship that they begin to experience what it means to be genuine in the human relationship of counselling.

2.5.7.6.5. Comment.

No thinking person can fail to be impressed with Munson's analysis of the ingredients for a human relationship. The writer knows from sheer practical experience that these factors are essential for satisfactory counselling. It is reassuring to find an academic on another continent, as a result of counselling a different set of people in another environment ... with the same findings as one's self! For caring, positive regard, openness and genuineness (which in fact means empathy) are without a doubt the prescription for successful counselling.

However, in sociological terms the counsellor, to be effective, must stand outside the authority structure in the educational institution and must be defined for the pupil as such. In this way he will feel free to relate to him in a less inhibited manner than he would do to a teacher on the staff of the school. Munson states that,

"Adolescents are often less able to trust when they are aware of ... multiple allegiances". (1971; 121)

2.6 Some Criticisms raised against Guidance and Counselling.

Shertzer (1971) maintains that any survey of Guidance in search of its meaning would be incomplete without some examination of the criticism at issue in this field.

He is of opinion that a consistent source of criticism, both past and present, has been the word "Guidance".

"Critics point out that the term conveys direction, authoritarianism and paternalism which is just the opposite of that which people in the field claim they practice". (1971; 54)

2.6.1. Many American writers are critical of the titles assigned to those who work in schools. Titles used have been "educational counselor"; "advisor"; "guidance counselor"; "vocational counselor"; and "psychological counselor". Critics claim that these titles obscure rather than clarify roles. Arbuckle in his work, *The Conflicting Roles of the School Counselor* (1961; 56) feels that the appointment should not be for two roles, but as either a teacher or a counsellor. In agreement with this thinking in the United States of America are Arnold (1949); Hitchcock (1953); Goldstein (1959); Hollis and Isaacson (1962); and Novak (1962). They all feel that counsellors should be given the opportunity to spend more time on counselling. They also are of opinion that counsellors in secondary schools should not teach but should be assigned full time to their responsibilities.

2.6.2. Wolfe in the preface to Wrenn's report, *The Counsellor in the Changing World* (1962; 111) maintains that guidance personnel are inadequately trained to perform the function which originally served as the basis for their employment.

2.6.3. Shertzer, commenting, maintains that recent increased stress on 'counselor' preparation programmes will no doubt have taken cognisance of past criticism in order to improve the standard of 'counseling practice' in secondary schools and colleges in the United States of America.

Another criticism levelled is that guidance is atheoretical and not based on its own theory. The contention is that attention has been directed to provide a service to students,

> *"to the detriment of building theories that explain the behaviour of individuals involved in guidance processes".* (Shertzer 1971; 57)

Critics assert that self-theory 'counseling', psycho-analytic 'behavioristic' and other models do not fit that which is done in school helping relationships because of the brevity of

counsellor-student contacts and for other reasons.

Shertzer is of opinion that while few 'counselors' would dispute that more work in theory building is needed, it would be common sense to take Super's advice,

> *"The school counselor ... should not let criticism lead him to over-react, to imagine threats that do not exist, to reject assistance which he needs, wants and knows how to use effectively".* (Super 1964; 571 cited by Shertzer 57)*

2.6.4. Summary and Conclusion.

It can be seen from the foregoing that in the United States of America the school counsellor has three main functions.

1. Vocational Guidance - providing help in choosing or finding out about "a job" or career.
2. Educational Guidance - providing help with subject choice and academic progress. Testing the I.Q., Aptitudes and Interests of pupils by means of standard tests.
3. Personal Guidance - providing help with any personal problem.

Counselling is in fact a technique used in guidance and is most relevant to personal guidance. According to Jones (1977; 26),

> *"The three threads of guidance are inextricably intertwined. This is one of the factors which makes for semantic and practical dilemmas faced in defining the counselor and his function".*

Jones maintains that it is possible to distinguish between vocational guidance, which is closely linked with educational guidance, and personal guidance or counselling ... but states,

> *"A person who comes for vocational guidance may need counselling at a personal level, before he can make*

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* Professor D.E. Super is on the Editorial Advisory Board of the British Journal of Guidance and Counselling and is Professor of Psychology and Education at Columbia University, New York. Source: British Journal

an objective decision, but not necessarily so".
(Jones 1977; 26)

There is no doubt that in the twentieth century, life has become more and more complex, the structure of society has become decreasingly supportive to the individual. Many young people live away from their families and require "outside help" in order to survive the new style of living. How far was this in a sense true of earlier periods? But we have no date to reveal it. A tantalizing thought.

Harris in his work, *Guidance and Counseling in the Year 2000* (1968) in a look into the crystal ball sees counsellors of the future in the United States of America as moving into human behavioural resource centres and making greater use of para-professionals because the supply of counsellors will be inadequate. He visualizes an increase in "counselor activities" in preventative guidance areas. He sees vocational 'counselors' becoming skilled in more technical dimensions because of more computer technology and other innovative developments in education. He sees counsellors in the United States of America as serving

"a more cosmopolitan and internationally minded clientele, and as human behaviour experts whose primary focus will be on preparing young people to fulfill their potential in a 'cyber-culture'". (Harris 1968 cited by Pietrofesa and Vriend 1971; 24)

It can be seen by the foregoing account of the meaning of Guidance and Counselling as interpreted by American writers, that guidance as

"decision making involves the individual in a process which attains great importance in a democratic society".
(Shertzer and Stone 1971; 70)

This is the case, because the philosophy behind democracy stresses that the individual is capable of self-improvement and

it advocates that the individual should be given the opportunity to attain maximum fulfillment.

The writer is of opinion that the authors selected in the foregoing section on "contemporary definitions of Guidance and Counselling" are a satisfactory sample of the American literature on this subject. The point of view of the English writers will now be considered.

2.7 Contemporary Definitions of Guidance and Counselling in England.

According to Ken Williams (1973); Gordon Rose and Tony F. Marshall (1974) the first specific reference to school counselling in an official government paper in Britain occurred in the *1963 Newsom Report*, which stated:

> *"In large schools it may not be fanciful to look forward to a stage where there is a full time counsellor available to advise pupils throughout their school course and to prepare them for going out into the world".*
> (cited by Williams 1973; 1)

In Working Paper No. 15 entitled, *Counselling in School*, a great deal of information on counselling in British schools was detailed, i.e. England and Wales. This was published in 1967 by the Schools' Council.

In the introduction, paragraph four, it is stated that,

> *"Counselling, that is the guidance of young people of school age in personal, educational and vocational matters has for long been subsumed under the general heading of Pastoral Care as one of the functions of the school teacher".*

In this function the school teacher has been aided in different degrees by external services of various types such as:

Youth Employment Services.
School Medical Service.
Psychological Services, as well as the internal organization and policy of the school itself.

> *"There is now developing a widespread even though as yet small movement towards the training of workers in the new profession - as it is for this country of school counsellors".* (1967; 1)

In July 1968, five years after the *Newsom Report*, prominent sociologists of education and educationists were participants in a National Conference on Guidance and Counselling held at Exeter University. Those present included Maurice Craft; Robin Pedley; Rowe; Whale; Kline; Robb; Hugh Lytton; Reid and Gill.[12)]

At the conference, it was decided to base Guidance and Counselling in British secondary schools and colleges on the kind of activity in which counsellors in schools in the United States of America were traditionally engaged. It was noted however, that in America only ten percent of pupils had left school by the age of eighteen. In Britain only ten percent were still in full time education at that age.

In order to define and clarify the meaning of Guidance and Counselling, the following outline of the range of responsibilities of a school counsellor in Britain was set out by Maurice Craft in a chapter entitled, *Guidance, Counselling and Social Needs*, based on the findings of the conference (Craft 1969; 9).

The question, (according to Craft) asked at the conference in Exeter was,

> *"What do we mean by Guidance and Counselling?"*

The answer was that the process had three generally accepted components:

1. Educational Guidance.
2. Vocational Guidance.
3. Personal Counselling.

Each component was "defined" as follows:

Educational Guidance - involved advice to pupils, parents and teachers on the choice of courses in the light of a variety of objective and impressionistic data-test scores, teachers' assessments over a period, classroom performance, emotional adjustment and level of aspiration.

Vocational Guidance - involved a continuous and careful assessment of interest, aptitude and potential over a period, using a variety of sources of data, together with educational guidance.

Personal Counselling - was related both to educational and vocational guidance, but was also concerned with emotional disturbance and behaviour problems. This area of the school counsellor's work would involve him or her in contact, not only with parents and other teachers, but also with a variety of other welfare specialists in child guidance, child care and probation and so on.

2.7.1. Further Interpretation of the meaning and functions of Guidance and Counselling.

In a subsequent report on "Counselling in Schools", Craft (1969) states that several further points were discussed at the conference at Exeter.

1. Firstly, the amount of time a counsellor might spend on any of the three aspects of the work might vary a great deal from school to school.

2. Secondly, while there might be more emphasis on advice-giving

in educational and vocational guidance, the general approach of the counsellor would be non-directive. The pupil/student would not be given a ready-made solution. The counsellor would be more concerned to develop the pupil's own capacity for decision making.

3. Thirdly, the counsellor was basically concerned with the prevention of behaviour and personality problems and with the anticipation of educational and vocational decisions.

"The counsellor in Great Britain is not primarily a diagnostician to be called on when there is trouble, nor is he an advice-giver on courses and careers to be consulted on the last day of the term. His involvement is a continuing one, and it clearly requires the development of accurate and comprehensive school records". (Craft 1969; 10)

Robin Pedley, then Professor of Education and Director of the University of Exeter Institute of Education, maintains that society like all living things must change,

"and perhaps the true role of the counsellor and teacher is to help every student to be equipped to take his own decisions about the direction and pace of change in his own world". (1969; 25)

In the same document, Gawthorpe comments on the school counsellor from the local education authority's viewpoint. He points out in a practical manner, that counselling involves at least three different jobs - personal counselling, educational counselling and vocational counselling. He maintains that there are as many approaches to counselling as there are counsellors. In an effort to define counselling, he states:

"The only definition of counselling I can give is what a counsellor does. By this I mean it is his work, which a trained colleague carries out in the context of his own school, in co-operation with the rest of the staff

and the external agencies". He had visited America and was concerned about *"the cost of a counselling service".* (1969; 29)

A.W. Rowe gave the following view of the school counsellor, from the head-teacher's viewpoint (1969; 38):

"In a comprehensive school in particular, where you are educating everybody, guidance-detailed, careful, continuous informed - should be the corner-stone on which all else is built". He drew attention to the value of parent-school contact. *"If you want to help Johnnie you've first got to help his parents".* (1969; 39)

2.7.2. The Views of British Writers who have acted as Counsellors - as to the Definition and Meaning of Counselling.

Anne Jones writes,

"I began my work as a school counsellor in 1965. At that time the idea of school counselling was new in Britain. It is true that counselling in schools is not altogether new; what is new is the establishment of the counsellor as a new professional species with professional skills (1977; 24)

The same author defines counselling thus:

"Basically counselling is an enabling process, designed to help an individual come to terms with his life as it is and ultimately to grow to greater maturity through learning to take responsibility and to take decisions for himself". (1977; 24)

She clarifies this further by stating that,

"Counselling is not meant to denote a process of advice-giving, of telling someone what to do, but rather of providing the conditions under which an individual will

be able to make up his mind what, if anything, he should do". (1977; 25)

She too, regards the components of counselling as involving educational, vocational and personal guidance. In the latter area she is of firm opinion that although many teachers in Britain have attempted "Pastoral Care", not all teachers have the talents or the knowledge for helping individuals with their problems. She maintains as does Gawthorpe (1969; 31) and Whale (1969; 44) that there are form teachers who have potential as counsellors, but their counselling role is inhibited by their other roles in the structure of the school and because they have *"so little spare time".*

Jones found when counselling adolescents as an experiment in a secondary school between 1965-1971, that at least ten percent of young people have problems which may not seem serious enough to refer to a social worker or to a psychiatrist, but which are real problems nevertheless. From the latter practical experience, she concluded that counselling these young people in school is a means of enabling them to develop their resources for coping.

"Adolescents in school and in society have to face many problems of adjustment and identity, they have to learn to be independent, to make decisions for themselves, to take responsibility, to weather a crisis, sometimes to live with a difficult situation". (1977; 38)

Finally, she is of opinion that not all adolescents require the aid of a counsellor, but the counsellor's role is to give support to those adolescents who do need help.

2.7.3. The Rationale - for Group Counselling in British Schools and the Definition and Meaning of Group Counselling.

The reason for a counselling service in British schools is given well by Hargreaves in his work, *Social Relations in a Secondary School* (1967) who describes his experiences of teaching

and counselling in several schools in the Bristol area and advocates group counselling. It is indeed true that Hargreaves' description of subcultures in a secondary school give a sound theoretical basis for group counselling.

Hargreaves, in *Social Relations in a Secondary School* (1967), demonstrates the existence of two subcultures within one school and shows the strength of peer group pressures as well as values internalized in the home. He explains that there are those who strive for some academic success and seek teacher approval and those who reject the acceptance of school values and gain peer group status by demonstrating opposition and hostility to learning and teachers. In forms where there is a high degree of rejection,

> *"The academically orientated boys are regarded by the teachers as conformists, whereas on the peer group level they are deviants, and the difficult boys whom the teacher regards as non-conformists are in fact the high status conformists on the peer group level".*
> (Hargreaves 1967)

Hargreaves believes that it is from the educational non-conformists that the rejectors of counselling will come, although their need for help may be as great, if not greater than that of those who will willingly seek help from staff. Peer group pressure will ensure that individual members of that group will not refer themselves for help to a teacher, instead they will discuss their problems among themselves.

Williams (1973) notes that if such pupils are to be helped, it will have to be by <u>group counselling,</u>

> *"which not only enables the pupils to discuss problems with a teacher without 'losing face' but also creates a better informed group. In this way, existing peer group support is modified towards positive instead of negative attitudes".* (1973; 48)

It should be noted that in a sense, all form teaching seeks to modify attitudes and create positive thinking, but so much of the teacher's work in the classroom is directed towards cognition that emotional learning is often disregarded. Because of the difficulties inherent in teaching and because of the need to deal with "the rejecting peer group", group counselling is necessary.

Having explained the rationale for group counselling the writer now offers the following definition given by Christensen (1965) cited by Williams (1973; 49):

> *"Group counselling lies midway between group therapy and group guidance and is basically the same as personal counselling on an individual basis, with the very important addition of the interaction of other members of the group".*

The British writers Williams (1974), Hoppock (1959), Morris (1965 *et.al.* agree that it is the interaction of pupils upon one another in a controlled situation which is the strength of group counselling.

> *"... the diffident, the withdrawn, the isolated are often able to discuss in a group, problems that they find difficult to talk about in a private interview".*
> (Williams 1973; 50)

in which they cannot masque the fact that they are discussing themselves.

Group counselling has long been encouraged in British schools. Hoppock, cited by Williams notes:

> *"Lively group discussion offers students an opportunity to express their anxieties regarding problems and their pent up feelings, especially hostility regarding the persons and conditions that in their opinion are responsible for their difficulties.*

Williams, Jones and Marland including others, are of opinion that a regular "time-tabled" guidance programme allowing for group counselling is essential in all schools, particularly secondary schools because,

> *"group counselling provides an opportunity for young people to discuss the implications of their moral choices, not only for themselves, but for others in society".* (Williams 1973; 66) [13)]

2.7.4. Comment.

The writer found it necessary to discuss the theoretical aspect of group counselling in order to define and ascertain its meaning. She is in full agreement with the foregoing British authors and practising counsellors that this method is invaluable as a means of 'reaching' all members of the secondary school - not only those who specifically require educational, vocational or personal counselling. It is desirable that more schools introduce group counselling as a continuing part of the curriculum. After all there is a good deal of conflict in the school situation. Group counselling in fact draws on group dynamics to achieve its ends. As man is a social animal, group interaction may very often be more effective in counselling than individual settings. [14)]

2.7.5. The Consideration of the Opinions of Later British Writers on Counselling in British Secondary Schools as to the Definition and Meaning of Counselling.

In seeking the definition and meaning of counselling as interpreted by British authors, the work of Michael Marland and his co-authors, who in 1974 wrote a work edited by Marland which they called *Pastoral Care* cannot be omitted.

Marland (1974) is in agreement with Gawthorpe (1969) who stated that,

> *"Comprehensive education, whether we like it or not,*

means large schools. Large schools have the danger of becoming impersonal schools". (1969; 30)

Marland himself the headmaster of a large comprehensive school, approached the problem from a positive standpoint. He realized that with the development of comprehensive schools, it became of paramount importance that 'pastoral care' was given to each individual in addition to teaching. He stated that taking cognisance of the individual is in keeping with the basic tenents of comprehensive schools, which are themselves a testimony of the fact that individuals have differing abilities and the curriculum offered needs to cater for these differences. He states that,

> *"It is important to stress that at the heart of the matter there can be no pastoral/academic split ... The secondary school is the experience which our civilization has chosen to use to bring adolescents through what psychologist Erik H. Erikson so potently called 'the crisis of identity'.*15) *What do I want to make of myself and what do I have to work with?"*

This, according to Marland's thinking, is the core of the pastoral need plus the fact that as Erikson (1971) has reminded us,

> *"School learning, however intrinsically interesting we may endeavour to make it, is an inevitable but regrettable layer which we have had to insert between the child and his adult life".*

Marland is of opinion that, pastoral care must take cognisance

> *"of today's world and our young people in it".* (1974; 3)
> He adds, *"... that it is my belief that pupils who have been coming into secondary schools, especially in urban areas since about 1964 have been notably different from their predecessors as a result of their upbringing".* (1974; 3)

Marland is convinced of the intensified need for 'pastoral care' in

comprehensive schools. Pat Daunt draws attention to the media, and states in his work *Comprehensive Values* (1975) that,

> *"The rate at which the media are diseducating children in obedience is far greater than that at which schools are educating them in any alternatives".*

Marland is of opinion that if Daunt's analysis is true, it makes 'pastoral care' in the schools even more of a challenge. Marland points out that in England, social, economic and political pressures, e.g. the reduced availability of work in many areas,

> *"have kept more young people in school for longer than ever".* (1974; 4)

Marland maintains that these factors have

> *"lit up ... the inevitable artificiality of school life".* In view of the latter, *"the efforts of recent years to adapt to the situation have been largely directed to reforming the curriculum".* (1974; 4)

Marland is of opinion that learning failures should be followed up in wider contexts. He knows that many share this view and that many teachers have found personal reward in bearing in mind the personal and social needs of pupils. This is the writer's view concerning the Practical Class in the Republic of South Africa.

By Pastoral Care, Marland means looking after the total welfare of the pupil. He describes the overall aim of secondary education thus:

> *"To help the individual to be true to the best of himself; to develop his talents to the full; to learn the basis of understanding himself; his family; his community and the world; and to do all this while developing, respect for the beliefs, characters and talents of others".*
> (Marland 1974; 9)

In support of his own opinion as to the needs of young people, moving through the adolescent years, Marland quotes W.D. Wall,

who suggests that the road to maturity lies through the construction of what he calls a series of four selves,

> *"Social, sexual, vocational and philosophic. Schools can assist this construction of a series of four selves. This is largely a pastoral task".* (Wall 1968; 13)

Wall is of opinion that schools and their teachers are always feeding back to pupils judgements and evaluations. Some of these are direct marks for work done, comments on personality and behaviour; others are indirect and unconscious ... All of them contribute to the building up of self image and the adjustment between the level of capacity and the level of aspiration. These factors are of immense importance to personal happiness and personal effectiveness. They are therefore even important to the stability of the whole social framework.

Wall suggests that it is at the school where boys and girls should be able to get reasonably unemotional answers to the questions,

> *"What sort of person am I? What sort of person do I hope to become" What do others really think of me?* (1968; 16)

Marland does not define counselling - or "pastoral care" as he terms it. He does however, offer the following 'breakdown' of his interpretation of pastoral care into complementary separate aims:

1. *To assist the individual to enrich his personal life.*
2. *To help prepare the young person for educational choice.*
3. *To offer guidance or counselling helping young people to make their own decisions, by questions and focus and by information where appropriate.*
4. *To support the 'subject teacher'.*

5. *To assist the individual to develop his or her own lifestyle and to respect that of others.*
6. *To maintain an orderly atmosphere in which all this is possible.*

2.7.6. Comment.

It can be seen that Marland places great emphasis on the individual. The central task of the school in pastoral work in keeping with American opinion, *"must be sensitive, warm, human, efficient, realistic and thorough"*.

The implementation of the counselling service within the schools to achieve these 'lofty' aims is beyond the scope of this chapter, which is to clarify the meaning of guidance and counselling as interpreted by some leading American and British educationists and sociologists of education in this field. As Charles Stuart Jervis remarks,[16] however, much depends on available resources:

> *"The success of any pastoral system will depend to a very large extent upon the ability of the system to draw in and involve all manner of children,*[17] *and this in its turn, will depend upon the availability of a variety of resources, chiefly human".* (1974; 17)

2.8 Conclusion.

Having put forward contemporary definitions and explanations of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools by American and British writers the following has emerged.

A clear distinction can be made between the terms Guidance and Counselling. The guidance service in secondary schools in contemporary Western society can be classified as consisting of three components. These are educational, vocational and personal guidance.

Counselling is the process within the guidance service.

Counselling is done in educational guidance. This part of guidance involves advice to pupils on the choice of courses in the light of a variety of objective data, e.g. test scores, assessment of aptitude and interest over a period, classroom performance, emotional adjustment and level of aspiration.[18)]

Vocational guidance similarly involves counselling as a result of a continuous and careful assessment of interest, aptitude and potential. Dogmatism and bias must be avoided by the counsellor.

Personal counselling is related to both educational and vocational guidance but it is also concerned with emotional disturbance and behaviour problems. This area of the school counsellor's work is likely to involve him or her in contact; not only with parents and other teachers but also with a variety of outside specialists, e.g. child and family welfare associations; psychological services, remedial teachers and doctors.

The point of distinction between guidance and counselling is that guidance is the service and counselling is 'the process of helping' within the service. Counselling in the secondary schools in contemporary Western society should aim at *"life adjustment education"* (Patterson 1962), so that the individual will leave secondary school with a realistic understanding of the complexities of society and not only an 'academic' education. An effective guidance and counselling service should have dealt with the problems of the adolescent as they occurred during his or her secondary school career and provided education for life ahead.

NOTES.

1) The British also regard the Mental Health Movement as a stimulus for the establishment of Guidance and Counselling in British schools.

2) Source: Guidance and Counselling in British schools, edited by Hugh Lytton and Maurice Craft.

3) Details of the development of Guidance and Counselling in the Republic of South Africa will be dealt with in Chapter Four of this dissertation.

4) In a later chapter, full treatment is given of the effect on youth of the lack of contact with grandparents, and compassion are made with other societies - (the Margaret Mead approach).

5) It is interesting to note that people of Eastern origin, e.g. Natal Indians still in many cases live with their parents after marriage and the parents are the head of the household and care for grandchildren.

6) In the American literature counselling is spelt 'counseling'. In the British and South African literature it is spelt 'counselling'.

7) The title of Professor H. Shiels' article was *The Training of the Teacher for the Task of Guidance and Counselling*, University of Natal, Durban. Professor Shiels has since retired. Professor A.L. Behr's article was entitled, *Guidance and Counselling in the Primary School*, University of Durban-Westville. C.J.J. Reyneke submitted the article entitled, *Guidance and Counselling of the Senior Secondary School Pupil in a System of Differentiated Education*. Cape Education Department.

8) This does not apply in all cases.

9) See note 3 as above.

10) Arbuckle found that some expected him to be a counselor and disciplinarian, to hold courses in curriculum development and to be a teacher (1968).

11) The view of Carl Rogers is dealt with in a sub-section on Theories of Counselling in Annexure A.

12) The positions by some of those present at the Conference at Exeter were as follows:
   1) Maurice Craft - Senior Lecturer in Education, University of Exeter, Institute of Education.
   2) Robin Pedley, Professor of Education, Director, University of Exeter.
   3) A.W. Rowe, Headmaster, David Lister Comprehensive School, Hull.
   4) Helen Whale, Deputy Headmistress, Maryfield School, Inner London Education Authority.
   5) Hugh Lytton, Lecturer in Education, Tutor-in-charge, Educational Guidance and Counselling Course, University of Exeter, Institute of Education.
   6) R. Leslie Reid, Professor of Psychology, University of Exeter.

13) In an article published in the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, Vol. 27, No. 3260-267, 3 May 1980 on Group Counseling, D. Keith, Morran and Rex and A. Stockton noted that in group counselling positive feedback is accepted to a greater degree than negative feedback in a wide variety of conditions.

14) Group counselling has been introduced in the counselling timetable of secondary schools in the Republic of South Africa, particularly Natal, since 1971.

15) From *Identity, Youth and Crisis*, 1971 Edition, p. 314.

16) Charles Stuart Jervis - Headmaster of Abbey Wood School, an eight form mixed comprehensive school in South East London. In addition a novelist, writer and lecturer.

17) Porteous and Fisher from the Social Work Research Unit, University of Bradford have published a paper in the *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, Vol. 8, No. 1, January 1980, giving the adolescent viewpoint of the counselling service.

18) These tests must be considered with reservation. They are merely an indication of intelligence, interest and aptitudes and are by no means foolproof.

CHAPTER THREE.

A SHORT HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING IN AMERICA AND GREAT BRITAIN.

There are various methods of presenting the history of Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America, Great Britain and the Republic of South Africa. It could be done merely in terms of the development of Guidance and Counselling itself. The other method is to not treat the history of Guidance and Counselling in isolation, but to take cognisance of the history of the country, under review, in which the Guidance and Counselling service developed.

In considering the United States of America, it is the writer's decision to give a brief historical sketch of the country as a prelude to the specific historical account of Guidance and Counselling. It is hoped that this method will lead to greater understanding.

3.1 Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America - The Historical Perspective.

The need for social change can be seen clearly as one of the motivating factors in the establishment of British colonies in North America in the seventeenth century. The British emigrants who became the founders of America, left their homeland because they wanted freedom of thought and action in religion. They left because they wanted to escape the restrictions placed on them by the rigid class structure. Their resulting government took cognisance of Rousseau, whose main philosophy had revealed the relationship of the individual and democratic society. The political and social environment of America nurtured philosophers such as Emerson (1801-82) and later Dewey (1959-1952). They were examples of men who took cognisance of the individual.

An understanding of the historical background prior to the twentieth century helps to understand the outlook of people in the United States of America in the twentiety century. Study of the history and political philosophy of the United States of America shows that their leaders thought in terms of the good of the individual. It is natural therefore for American educators to consider the needs of the individual in secondary schools and colleges. As has been shown in Chapter two of this dissertation, there are deep-seated societal forces that result in social conditions that make Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools a wise choice for the ultimate good of the country, e.g. to educate the population so that America can compete in the East-West race for technological superiority. Vocational guidance can prevent educational wastage and ensure that scholars with science and mathematics ability do use their talents. Nevertheless a service within their schools, offering Personal, Educational and Vocational counselling to each pupil is in keeping with the basic philosophy that underlies the governing of their country. An example of this can be seen from the wording of the Declaration of Independence (July 4th 1776). The author Thomas Jefferson, a Virginian, was responsible for the wording of the declaration. The writings of the English philosopher John Locke and the French philosopher Rousseau were quoted to justify the steps the Americans had taken in defence of their freedom and the rights of *"Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness"*. Rousseau had revealed the relationship between the free individual and the democratic society, which became the corner stone of American political philosophy.

While the wording written by Thomas Jefferson on the Declaration of Independence bequeathed the democratic outlook to posterity in the United States of America, the Civil War (which resulted in the formation of the United States of America) had stimulated the growth of industry and "big business" in the Northern States.* After the Civil War the United States of America went through such a phenomenal period of economic development, that it emerged at the end of the nineteenth century as one of the most advanced technically and powerful countries of the world. A flourishing export trade had

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* It should be noted also, that as a result of the Civil War slavery was abolished.

directed the attention of the United States of America to the affairs of the outside world.

> *"These interests led the United States of America early in the twentieth century to develop new international relations which caused it to attain the status of a world power".* (Fowler 1962; 406)

The need for improved educational standards to cope with the tremendous strides in technology was realized early in the twentieth century. Perhaps the most important contribution to posterity of men like Thomas Mann was the educating of public opinion in favour of free public education for all.

By 1905 one third of elementary school children went to high school. Nine percent stayed there until the age of eighteen and four percent went to college. These were very high proportions to be achieved in so short a time, but in the twenty years that followed these figures were to be increased threefold.

The concept of Guidance and Counselling was encouraged by humanitarian movements. It was also as a result of the wave of immigration to the United States of America in the late 1800's and early 1900's. The influx of immigrants had resulted in slum conditions in the cities, e.g. Detroit, Boston, New York and Chicago. There was also confusion as to job opportunities.

This was the climate in which Guidance and Counselling emerged and developed in the United States of America in the early years of the twentieth century. It was important for there to be no wastage of talent, both for the sake of the individual and for the requirements of the State.

By taking cognisance of the history of the country, albeit a mere fragmentary reference, the political and philosophical climate in which the Guidance and Counselling service developed in the United

States of America can be better understood. It is now pertinent to examine the historical development of the service itself, in the United States of America - on which Britain and in consequence the Republic of South Africa have based their respective Guidance and Counselling services in secondary schools and colleges.

3.2 The Historical Development of Guidance and Counselling in the Twentieth Century in the United States of America.

A great deal has been written about the history of Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America. Details can be obtained from almost any of the numerous text books. Briefly, counselling in the United States started as vocational guidance at the beginning of this century, and this was associated with the gradual development of tests of intelligence, ability and aptitude.

At the same time American education was developing the comprehensive high school. In 1910, thirty five percent of seventeen year olds were in high school but in 1958 the figure had doubled to seventy percent (Conant 1959). The high school diploma had become the established and increasingly important prerequisite not only for the university entry but for a wide range of further education and occupations. Thus there was an increasing flow of studies and discussions of the problem of drop-outs. These changes led to the expansion of two other kinds of Guidance: educational guidance, which is concerned with the choice of subjects; and personal guidance, which is concerned with what might broadly be considered as individual case-work. The latter grew particularly out of increasing concern with problems of emotional and social adjustment and the movement for the prevention of mental illness, both of which in the United States of America were accelerated by World War II. There had also been a movement away from Testing and direct advice in vocational guidance, a trend much influenced by Carl Roger's advocacy of non-directive and client-centred therapy. More recently, there has been a considerable development in group counselling. Thus in America,

"counselling has been moving steadily towards emphasis upon techniques which are akin to case-work and group-work, but the need for and emphasis upon choice of courses in American high schools and the strong tradition of vocational and career counselling leaves these very much the more important emphases". (Rose and Marshall 1974; 225)

3.2.1. Since vocational guidance is regarded with such significance in the United States of America the writer feels justified in detailing the history of this field.

Shertzer (1971), Munson (1971) and Patterson (1969) claim that Frank Parsons is generally regarded as the father of Guidance in the United States of America. Prior to him however, the Americans list James M. Cattell who brought to America, *"the use of mental measurements to study individual differences".* Binet and Simon in 1905 too, were researching techniques that resulted in the modern intelligence tests. Nevertheless within the framework of Guidance, Parsons founded the vocational Bureau in Boston in 1908. This was a placement centre for youth, who were in need of Vocational Guidance and Job Placement. Parson's approach to Vocational Guidance was described in *Choosing a Vocation* (1909). This description of the Vocational Guidance process has become the model for Guidance in American secondary schools.[1)]

As a result of his teachings, Vocational Guidance was first introduced into public schools in Boston in 1909.

In 1913 the National Vocational Guidance Association was founded to foster the development of vocational guidance in public schools and community agencies. This body provided leadership for the Guidance Movement until 1952, when the *American Personnel and Guidance Association* was organized to serve the growing number of professional Guidance and Counselling workers.

Both Shertzer and Stone and Munson in their separate texts state that in 1914 Jesse Davis, another pioneer in the evolvement of school guidance, described how teachers in Grand Rapids, Michigan, attempted to weld guidance and instruction by relating English to the tasks of self-analysis and occupational exploration. In this way, the work of Davis made it possible for all students to be exposed to guidance. It attempted also to integrate guidance and the educative process, making guidance an integral part of an individual's growth and development.

Also in 1914, Truman T. Kelley at the Teacher's College, Columbia University, made use of the term "Educational Guidance" to describe the help given in the choice of studies and in other school adjustments. Educational Guidance was readily adapted to schools. Topics such as, selecting courses for study, school progress and achievement and educational opportunities beyond high school, were tailor-made topics for the secondary school guidance movement. From these pioneer programmes, the potential force of Guidance in the school and in the community was recognized.

3.2.2. The development of the Guidance and Counselling Movement was affected by World War I (1914-1918). (A reluctant Woodrow Wilson declared war on Germany on the 6th April, 1917.) Curtis and Boultwood report that among the many wartime developments and events which affected the general attitude to education, were the publication by Dewey of *Democracy and Education* in 1916 and the Smith Hughes Act by which in 1917 the Federal Government granted aid to vocational education. Shertzer and Stone (1971; 63) maintain that the historical context of guidance would be incomplete without mentioning the impact upon the educational movement in the United States in the 1920's and 1930's of a pamphlet of the Bureau of Education (now the United States office of Education), *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.*[2] Curtis and Boultwood also comment on the great significance of this document. They point out that *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*

"was a charter of triumph for the professional educationist,

and in particular for the group of innovators whose natural leader and spokesman was John Dewey". (1964; 577)

Shertzer and Stone provide the information that the pamphlet declared that the goal of education was effective living in several areas of human activity: health, fundamental mental processes, home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure time and ethical character. Shertzer and Stone stated that,

"Guidance as identical with education grew out of an attempt by Brewer and others to describe vocational guidance as a means for implementing the seven cardinal principles". (1971; 63)

Shertzer and Stone relate that during the middle 1920's, William M. Procter in his work *Educational and Vocational Guidance* published in 1925, pointed out that American high schools needed more guidance "programs". He conceptualised guidance as a mediating force that helps the student cope with school and life forces. It was his opinion that students need help in the selection of school subjects, extra-curricular activities, colleges and vocational schools. As a result of their research into the history of Guidance and Counselling, Shertzer and Stone found that by 1930 the concept of "educational and vocational guidance" was well on its way to general acceptance. (1971; 65)

3.2.3. As a result of general reading into the history of Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America the writer observed that the depression years of the 1930's had both positive and negative effects on the Guidance Movement. The establishment of guidance programmes was slowed down by cutbacks in school personnel. Educational programmes of all types were curtailed rather than developed. This was due to the collapse of the stock market (Wall Street) - large amounts of money were lost by philanthropists. On the other hand the years of unemployment and the need to get the unemployed, both young and old into the labour market, spotlighted the need for vocational guidance. As the financial condition of the

country became more stabilized, Guidance programmes began in larger and smaller communities, and education was ready to embrace this new concept in practice.

3.2.4. Munson (1971; 7) in his historical consideration of the Guidance movement observes that, *"once again international conditions intervened"*. The American nation became embroiled in World War II, and all efforts were concentrated on the mental and physical efforts of winning the war. Thus, the emergence of guidance was delayed almost another decade, following World War II and the period of recovery. But as with the depression, World War II had positive effects on the Guidance movement. The need for vocational guidance in returning servicemen to civilian occupations again reinforced the guidance movement, leaving it in an even stronger position for implementation in the schools.

3.3 Guidance and Counselling a Post-World War II Phenomenon.

The immediate stimulus for guidance lay in the educational and vocational planning required by the thousands of servicemen being returned daily to civilian life between 1945 and 1947. Opportunity for a college education was available to all ex-servicemen and women. The Veterans Administration, *"through its counseling and testing service"*, aided ex-servicemen and women to return to civilian life. Institutions of higher education were

> *"packed with ex-servicemen and suddenly Guidance was afforded a significant role in the national educative process"*. (Munson 1971; 9)

The first guidance programmes in the United States of America in secondary schools in the 1950-1960 period tended to be vocationally and educationally orientated. Much emphasis was placed on planning a high school course of study and choosing an occupation. Most of the counsellor's efforts were directed towards helping the individual with decisions and plans associated with his chosen occupation.

3.3.1. Testing had become fashionable. The Intelligence Quotient (I.Q.) became a common term among educators. But in the 1950's research on the multiple factors of mental ability had progressed to a point where aptitude tests measuring a variety of mental abilities, perceptual speed and spatial relationships were being used. The literature shows that the decade following World War II had produced several such aptitude tests. Many counsellors used these tests in their programmes in order to help students make decisions about courses and careers. These standardized tests (intelligence, achievement, interest, aptitude and personality) had considerable influence on the practice of guidance during this period.[3)]

3.3.2. It was in the post-war period in the United States of America that the vocational guidance counsellors began to collect files on different careers for occupational information, college prospectives and details of earn and learn training schemes, e.g. motor mechanics or tele-communications technicians. They introduced the use of cumulative record cards for each individual. These records of examination and other results were maintained and administered by the guidance counsellors. These records, although time consuming in their maintenance were invaluable for pupil appraisal and diagnosis.

3.3.3. According to Munson and Shertzer and Stone (1971) who did valuable research into the historical development of guidance services in the United States - by the late 1950's the work of the Guidance Counsellor was well established in many States in the United States of America. According to Munson (1971; 10) six elements were considered basic to a well-rounded Guidance programme in the post-war era:

1. articulation and orientation;
2. analysis of the individual;
3. information service;
4. counselling;

5. placement; and
6. follow-up activities.

Commenting on this period, (1945-1960) Munson was of opinion that it was characterized by too few counsellors, who had to attend to the needs of pupils from early adolescence to young adulthood. They were the critical years when an image of guidance was being created.

> *"Counselors worked hard to prove the value of guidance in the educative process".* (Munson 1971; 11)

The Parsonian method begun in 1908 by Frank Parsons, had become the model on which vocational guidance was based. Yet contrary to the ideal of Parsons in this period of the development of guidance in the United States of America, the results of tests were seldom interpreted to students due to lack of time. Many counsellors distorted the Parsonian theory in school guidance practice. Also at this stage, *"Programs".* (according to Munson 1971; 12)

> *"were Guidance programs. Counselors were guidance-oriented. Counseling in almost any form was meagre and insufficient".*

During these initial years an image of guidance was created. The expectations for guidance had been firmly entrenched and it had established an identity.

3.4 The Growth of Guidance from 1960-1970 and onwards.

In the decade from 1960-1970 and onwards, Guidance was influenced by the passing of the *National Defence Education Act of 1958.* The Act consisted of two sections, known as Titles: *Title V-A of the Act made provision for improving and extending School Guidance Programmes. Title V-B of the Act provided for preparing Secondary School Guidance Personnel.*[4] Both titles had a positive impact on secondary school programmes.

3.4.1. Counselling, the element of school guidance which had achieved quantitative measurement became the focus of much attention. This emphasis on the counselling function continued to grow throughout the sixties. The reason for this was that originally guidance was introduced to help the individual attain academically to his or her maximum potential. It was realized that to achieve this, more than mere guidance was required. Counselling, the in-depth process of guidance, was needed in many cases - to achieve the desired result of the Guidance movement. The Act assisted the growth of the counselling role in guidance. A brief consideration of each title is necessary.[5)]

3.4.2. Under Title V-A funds administered by the appropriate State agency were made available by the Federal Government to the secondary schools who applied for monies to improve their guidance services in accordance with the goals of the State plan. These funds added significantly to the improvement of guidance provisions: e.g. (1) Previously unattainable materials were authorised; (2) Professional positions were opened; (3) In-service activities were initiated and school counselors were encouraged to attend professional meetings and workshops; and (4) In some States testing programs were expanded and personnel were prepared to utilize the results of these tests. (A feature lacking in vocational guidance in the post-war era.)

3.4.3. Under Title V-B.

(1) Institutes to prepare school counselors were approved.
(2) Institute programs for the development of *"counseling practice as well as other important laboratory and didactic experiences"* were encouraged (Munson 1971; 13).

> *"Counseling, the element of school guidance that had so long remained a less than vital programme ingredient, became the focus of much attention. The counseling function began to achieve a "new look" in the totality of the Guidance endeavour".* (Munson 1971; 13)

3.5 The School Counsellor becomes a Professional.

Researchers into the history of Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America (e.g. Patterson (1961), Munson (1971), Shertzer and Stone (1971)) are unanimous in the opinion, found in their separate texts, that by 1970 the counselling role of the secondary school "guidance worker" had become the basis of his professional identity.

> *"The heretofore common job designation "guidance counselor" had become somewhat obsolete and the designation "school counselor" had replaced it".*
> (Munson 1971; 13)

3.5.1. An association was formed which was known as the American School Counselor Association. This Association issued its historic document known as *The Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors.*[6] This was one of the most important documents to be developed in the sixties. According to Pietrofessa and Vriend (1971), over 6 000 counsellors contributed background data consisting of information about their positions, as well as reactions to the preliminary versions of the statement of policy and suggestions for revision. Other school personnel, including teachers and school administrators also reacted and offered suggestions. The statement was finally approved of by the *American School Counselor's Association* in 1964.

This was a milestone in the history of Guidance and Counselling in the United States of America. This represented the first complete attempt to specify the role and function of the secondary school counsellor.

> *"It established a distinct professional identity of the school counselor and ear-marked counseling as the basic and most important help he offers to pupils".*
> (American School Counselor's Association; 5)

The importance of this historic document lay in the fact that,

"with the publication of this statement, the work of the school counselor, including his responsibilities, competencies and preparation was professionaly formulated for the first time". (Munson 1971; 16)[7)]

As a result of the publication of this document, confusion in counsellor role definition was replaced by clarity.

3.5.2. From 1964 to the present time the American interested in Guidance and Counselling had a new mission, namely the professionalization of Counselling. The image of the counsellor in the guidance profession was expressed by four stereotypes as explained by Munson (1971; 17). The stereotype of Responsibility, in which the school counsellor is viewed as the person who is responsible for student decisions or behaviour. The stereotype of Failure - in which the counsellor is seen as the person who keeps individuals from failing. The stereotype of Occupational choice in which

"the counselor is viewed as the person who can tell you what occupation you ought to enter". (Munson 1971; 17)

These images of the school counsellor had to be protected by legislation. The "school counsellor" had become a professional in American society.

"The school counselor has therefore a professional obligation to be a member of the American Personnel and Guidance Association and the American School Counselors Association or other state and local professional organization". (Pietrofesa and Vriend 1971; 123)

This was necessary to give the "school counselor" an identity and a code of behaviour on which to base his counselling practice. In the 1970-80 era the 'counseling role' of the secondary school guidance worker has become a basic for his professional identity.[8)]

"The heretofore common job designation "guidance Counselor" has become somewhat obsolete and the

designation 'school counselor' has replaced it.
(Munson 1971; 20)

The writer is of opinion that the gains that Guidance has achieved in the last decade (1970-1980) have been numerous. However it is believed by many American critics that in the United States of America there is yet too little counselling. Rose and Marshall (1974; 235) cite Lytton (1969) as having said:

> *""The Holy Trinity" of counselling, educational, vocational and personal exist more in theory than in practice in the U.S.A. ... In reality American school counselors hardly ever combine the three functions. They are most heavily involved in educational Guidance, helping the pupil find the right combination of courses at school or choose the appropriate university".*

Despite this criticism, most American writers contend that the main aim of providing assistance to pupils, parents and teachers is the central function of 'counseling' in American high schools and colleges. They are of opinion that this is essential if the wider aims of society are to be met, by Education, as the century draws to its close.

3.6 Summary.

The foregoing historical account began with a comment on the history of America. Particular mention is made of the influence of the philosophers Rousseau and Locke on the Jefferson document, known as the Declaration of Independence. By the twentieth century those attitudes had been further strengthened by other American philosophers and educationists. In the nineteenth century there was R. Waldo Emerson (1801-82) followed by Dewey. Curtis and Boultwood are of opinion that,

> *"In emphasising the uniqueness of the individual Emerson is the precursor of Dewey, for both men conceived the*

free mature human being as one whose beliefs and attitudes were truly his own, although reconciled to the limitations and demands of human society".
(1964; 562)

In the United States of America due to rapid development after the Civil War the need to educate all was realized. The need for Guidance and Counselling became apparent, though basic outlook and attitude and for practical and other reasons, e.g. immigration and the growth of humanitarianism at the turn of the century. Factors well documented in the historical accounts of Guidance and Counselling by Shertzer (1971), Munson (1971), Patterson (1969) et.al. They all describe how vocational guidance had its beginnings with Frank Parsons at the centre established in Boston in 1909. The influence of his writings on vocational guidance are legend in the United States of America. Comprehensive schools were introduced in America as early as 1910. This led to the gradual introduction of the other forms of counselling in the various States of the United States of America. Educational counselling developed with the introduction of the Testing Movement; personal counselling developed with the gathering importance placed on this method, by the Mental Health Movement. The mode of counselling changed. The influence of Rogers (non-directive techniques) is mentioned in all texts.[9)]

Counselling became legal by the passing of the National Defence Act of 1958. The next significant milestone was the Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors approved of by the American School Counselor's Association in 1964. As a result clarity was given to the counselor's role in American education and the professionalization of 'Counseling' was accomplished. A code for the legal position and ethical behaviour of 'counselors' was established.

In an article published in the Journal known as the

American Psychologist (Lakin 1969 cited by Pietrofesa and Vriend (1971)), it is stated:

> *"In the last analysis, it will be the individual counselor acting ethically, competently, professionally and serving his clients interests - who will determine the strength and viability of the counseling profession, as well as the direction it takes. To chart the uncharted seas, the emerging profession needs such counselors multiplied by the thousands across the nation".*

Western countries owe the concept of Guidance and Counselling in its present form to the United States of America. It is interesting to note that by 1964 'the counselor' in the United States of America had attained professional status, whereas in Britain in 1963 the Newsom Report which recommended Guidance and Counselling 'on American lines' had just been published. In the Republic of South Africa the practice of counselling only began in 1971. Brookover and Erikson writing in 1975 state,

> *"There are now several hundred sociologists in the American Sociological Association and the American Educational Research Association who are examining the social nature and function of education".*

> *"Since Guidance and Counseling is regarded in America as a sub-institution of Education* (Weinberg 1969) *there is no doubt that a proportion of the research being done at present concerns the improvement of counseling techniques and the guidance service.*[10)]

It is hoped that viewing Guidance and Counselling from the perspective of history has contributed to a greater understanding of its origin and its usefulness to society.

3.7 Guidance and Counselling in England - An Historical Perspective.

> *"The Educational system of England, reflects the image of the out-moded social class system, in which it has grown up".* (Hansen 1905)

3.7.1. The philosophy and policy of the government of a country affects the education system. The rise of an egalitarian political ideology in the post World War II years, has been an important influence on the development of Guidance and Counselling in British schools.

In addition sociological studies have shown that cultural deprivation due to poverty and a deficit in education of parents, have led to an alarming waste of talent, which could be the source of the economic difficulties experienced in Britain in the twentieth century. The Butler Education Act of 1944 made the theoretical provision *"of equal education for all"*. But it was realized by the writers of the Newsom Report (1963) that the American idea of a Guidance and Counselling service to make the democratization of education a reality, was worthy of consideration.

However to understand the history of Guidance and Counselling in England, it is necessary albeit briefly,

> *"to explain the major social changes which the people of England experienced during the remarkable century between 1815-1914 which might well be called 'The Great Peace'".* (Daniel Thomson 1966; 9)

By so doing the development of Guidance and Counselling will be seen in its true perspective.

3.7.2. According to the social historians, including Thomson, Toynbee and A.J.P. Taylor, educational change stemmed from the changes in mental habit and outlook or in social life and organization which constituted the development of the English national

community during these years.

The population of Great Britain in 1815 was thirteen million people, one quarter of the population of the mid-twentieth century. Most Englishmen in 1815 worked on the land or in trades connected with agriculture. In the next generation however, many Englishmen became townsmen engaged in industry. It is a fact that

> *"sixteen years after Waterloo (1815) half the population already lived under urban conditions".* (Thomson 1966; 11)

3.7.3. It was the process known as the industrial revolution, defined by historians as the change from animate power to inanimate power, which was the basic cause of the growth of urbanization and major social changes in England. The inventions which initiated this change cannot be detailed here. The point of relevance is that social evils resulted from rapid urbanization. The lack of adequate housing led to slums, the lack of social legislation led to the employment of women and children, and the spread of disease due to filth and poor sanitation in the cities. This was the price people paid for industrialization.

> *"The employment of women in factories led to the neglect of home life. Morals were low and among the young who were sadly neglected there was widespread delinquency. Children had no opportunity of developing a healthy outdoor life".* (Boyce 1968; 150)

3.7.4. <u>What has this to do with Education?</u>

The historian Trevelyn maintains that children grew up illiterate. They spent most of the day in factories. They were not obliged to go to school. In fact there were no schools for children of the working class before 1833. The class distinction was marked as between labour and capital.

Thomson researched population statistics during the first thirty years of the nineteenth century. These statistics indicate

the rapid growth of towns and reflect the following:

1. The population of Birmingham and Sheffield doubled in size;
2. The population of Liverpool, Leeds, Manchester and Glasgow more than doubled in size; and
3. London's population in 1815 was above the million mark and in 1820 numbered 1 274 000. (1966; 12)

The diagram below illustrates the growth and redistribution of the population of England and Wales in the nineteenth century.

Despite the unsatisfactory social conditions and the dissatisfaction caused by the sharp division between the capital and labour classes - the National wealth increased. By 1815 the British import of raw cotton from America amounted to eighty-two million pounds. By 1860 it rose to 1 000 million pounds.

> *"Britain became the factory of the world, which depended on the manufactured goods, which she exported".*
> (Boyce 1960; 293)

According to Thomson the hardships of the people were noted by philosophers and philanthropists, e.g. Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832). His philosophical radicalism was the most characteristic intellectual product of this period. His followers James Mill and John Stuart Hill and Edwin Chadwick (1800-1890) dominated English radical thought throughout the century. Adam Smith's laissez-faire individualistic doctrines in economics, were transformed into a philosophy of legislative reform, social service organizations and even a variety of socialism during this period.

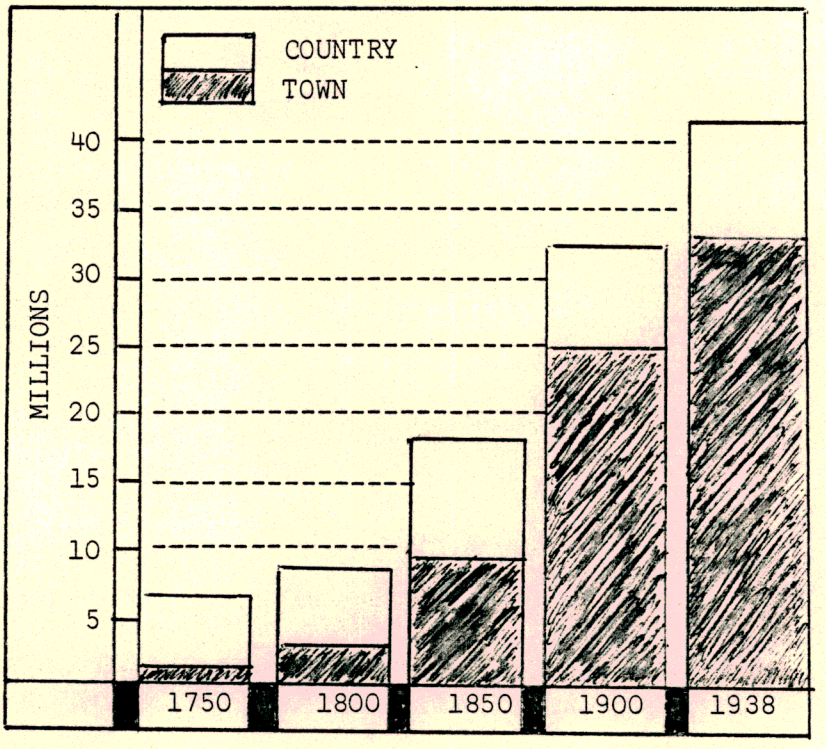


Diagram to illustrate the growth and redistribution of the population (England and Wales).

3.8 Reforms and Their Effect on Education.

In 1832 the Reform Act was passed. This Act was the first signal of the steady takeover of political power by the middle class. This was followed by the growth of the trade union movement begun by the Chartists, from which the Labour Party in England evolved.

Legislation was enacted which showed the interest in the individual. *In 1883* an Act was passed which limited the hours of work for children; the Act provided that children between the ages of nine and thirteen were to have *two hours of schooling a day.* *In 1842* Lord Shaftesbury succeeded in having the Mines Act passed which *forbade* the employment of *women and children* in coal mines. There was great interest in the improvement of *public health* between 1848 and 1874. This sprang from two dynamic forces, the cholera and Edwin Chadwick. In 1848 as a result of the efforts of the latter, a Board of Health was created to supervise the administration of new sanitary laws in towns and cities. In 1919 this Board became the present Ministry of Health in Britain.

3.8.1. In education there was little progress towards a national system of public education before 1867. There were schools but no general system. *In 1883 the first grant of public money of £20 000 was made for the building of schools.* A commission of 1858 recommended the setting up of local Education Boards. It was the *Reform Bill of 1867* which gave the first real impetus to the creation of a national system of free and compulsory education and in 1869 the National Education League was founded at Birmingham by the radicals. *The Education Act of 1870* set up locally-elected school boards which could compel attendances to the age of thirteen. Fees could be remitted for poor parents. There were also various commissions of enquiry as a result of public pressure from the new electorate. These developments resulted in further legislation, setting up locally elected Boards and a means test.

In 1870 however, elementary school did not lead to

secondary school.

> *"They were two parallel lines not expected to meet. Each system was independent of the other".* (Hewitson 1969; 10)

By 1870 the answer to questions about secondary education was to be found in the *Clarendon Commission of 1864* and the *Tauton Commission of 1868*. The latter commission surveyed the state of affairs in the existing endowed schools throughout the country. The commission found that the principle aim of grammar schools as secondary schools were known, was to give some form of instruction in Latin. This was the language of Theology, Law, Science and even Diplomacy in western Europe.

This fact was criticized by *The Edinburgh Review* as early as 1830.

> *"The most precious years were spent not in filling the mind with solid knowledge nor in training it to habits of practical thoughts".*

The commissions did reveal however, that some schools had gained the reputation as *"Great" Grammar Schools*. These included Rugby, Uppingham and Shrewsbury. Rugby built a physics laboratory in 1859 and Uppingham boasted a gymnasium. Other schools known to be in this category were boarding schools, e.g. Cheltenham, Marlborough and Wellington. There were also highly regarded day schools in London, e.g. King's College and The City of London School. The curricula of these schools was criticized by the commissions, because

> *"The boy had to be fitted to the course, not the course to the boy".* (Hewitson 1969; 20)

The commissions found there were only thirteen endowed secondary schools for girls in the whole country in 1868. One of the results of the commission was a campaign for education for girls. Another result was a pamphlet written by Sidney Webb, *The Education Muddle and the Way Out*. In 1865 the Tauton Commission

sent Matthew Arnold to the continent to report on middle and upper class education in France, Germany, Switzerland and Italy. The results of his work were published in *Schools and Universities on the Continent, 1868.* As a result he advocated the creation of a well organized system of secondary schools in England. He was acutely aware of the inadequacies and short-comings of the middle class and his remedy was in an organized system of education administered by the State through an effective local government.[11] He realized that the lack of an inadequate educational organization in England was having unfortunate economic consequences.

> *"Our engineers have no real scientific instruction and we let them learn their business at our expense by rule of thumb".* (Arnold cited by Curtis and Boultwood 1964; 452)

Arnold's recommendations were prophetic. He suggested one public department with a Minister of Education responsible for the whole service ... and provincial school boards to function as local education authorities.

In *1899 the first Legislation* concerning *secondary schools* in England was enacted. The Board of Education Act was initiated by Cockerton. This Act made provision for one central Education Authority and secondary schools were inspected for efficiency and their financial requirements received attention.

> *"The Board of Education may send their officers to inspect any school supplying secondary education, with the purpose of ascertaining the character of teaching in the school and the nature of the provisions made for the teaching and health of the scholars".* (Hewitson 1969; 24)

In Hewitson's view this Board was instrumental *"in bringing in"* proper secondary education, *"in tune with the developing needs of the times".*

3.8.3. *In 1902 the Education Act was passed.* It was known as the *Balfour Bill.* While it cannot be said that the new Act made possible

anything like a complete National system of education, it was a very great step forward. The Act did not, as enthusiasts claimed, *"provide a ladder from elementary school to university"* but in the course of the years that followed, the Act gradually led the authorities to provide some new secondary schools.

A further important consequence of the Act was in the field of teacher training and supply. As the secondary schools gradually increased in number their older boys and girls could opt for training as teachers, and so the need for a pupil-teacher system based on elementary schools began to diminish.

One of the defects of the Act was that it did not unify the education system. It in fact perpetuated and in some respects, emphasised the distinction between elementary and secondary education, which had developed in the nineteenth century.

Bernard Lawrence in his work *The Administration of Education in Britain* (1972) was of opinion that secondary education in England, remained for another generation very much a middle class preserve. The system of scholarships only allowed a small proportion of elementary school pupils to join the secondary schools.

As a result of reading on this period, the writer has concluded that the 1902 Education Act made no attempt to define Higher Education. The elementary and secondary schools still remained in rigid isolation, except that the same local authority was responsible for their development. Hewitson's research into this period reveals that,

> *"2 568 School Boards had been replaced by 328 local Authorities with greater powers".*

Significant to the frame of reference of this dissertation is that as a result of the Education Act of 1902,

> *"It was coming to be accepted as a truism, that the state owed to every child a better opportunity".* (Hewitson 1969; 28)

The electorate would no longer tolerate the neglect of the more material aspects of child welfare. This was the period the sociologist Seebohn Rowntree described. He maintained that over one quarter of the citizens of York, could not afford to buy sufficient food to do a proper day's work. It was considered absurd *"to feed a child's mind when his stomach was empty"*. There was an evergrowing concern for the welfare of the individual. The enactment of the following legislation confirms this attitude.

3.8.4. *In 1906* - The provision of *The Meals Act* was the result of the work of Margaret McMillan in Bradford.

In 1907 - Education authorities were empowered to provide *medical treatment* for school children.

In 1910 - Education authorities set up *Juvenile Employment Bureaus*, to advise boys and girls on the choice of a career. This was a significant step in the history of vocational guidance in England and parallels with the work of Frank Parsons in Boston in the United States of America in 1909.

In 1913 - The London County Council had set up the first *Child Guidance Clinic* in the country. By case studies and statistical analysis *Sir Cyril Burt* had shown how useful *psychological* tests could be to help diagnose the educational requirements of dull, defective delinquent and neurotic children.

In this period, it was in fact coming to be accepted that before a school taught anything at all it had to

> *"strive to create an environment and an atmosphere conducive to the all round development of each child as an individual and as a citizen"*. (Hewitson 1969; 29)

3.8.5. A pamphlet (No. 50) of the Board of Education entitled *Recent Developments of Secondary Schools in England and Wales* dated 1927, summarises the improvements in secondary education that had

been brought about over 25 years (1902-27) in the following terms:

(a) *First, and most fundamental, among these courses stands the new fact of public control without which none of the other developments would have been possible.*

(b) *Directly depending upon this stands proper financial provision both for buildings and maintenance.*

(c) *The regulation of age and conditions of entry have rendered possible effective internal organisation.*

(d) *There has been developed a reasonable system of examinations which afford a test of school work to which the whole of the appropriate forms are submitted and not merely selected pupils.*

(e) *Of great importance has been the development of sixth forms aided by advanced course regulations. This is of value not only to the relative few who take part in it, but generally because of its reactions on the whole school, to staff and pupils alike.*

(f) *Most essential of all has been the growth of a body of teachers better educated, more generally interested in their work - though much remains to be done in this respect - with fuller opportunities of learning the techniques of their profession.* (cited by Bernard Lawrence 1972; 44)

3.8.5.1. Comment.

This interesting document brings to bear several points. Firstly the mention of "public control" which is in fact state intervention in education by legislation. This was a new concept in 1902 when the Education Act was passed. The writers of pamphlet 50 realized the value of state assistance in education and in (b)

comment on the usefulness of this in regard to the financing and maintenance of the actual "physical plant" required for education. Attainment was regarded as important as examinations the measurement of attainment are mentioned. Reference to sixth forms aided by advanced course regulations, shows the interest in the curriculum itself. The reference to teacher training shows the realization of the importance of well trained and interested teachers.

The pamphlet did not call attention to the important relationship which was developing between elementary and secondary schools; no mention was made of the pupils as individuals with differences in ability and interests.

According to Lawrence in 1927 in Britain education for the great majority was still an elementary education cramped and limited by its ancestry and by tradition of cheapness and narrowness of outlook.

> *"With few exceptions the so-called ladder from elementary school to secondary education was still barred to the great majority of the nation's children".* (Lawrence 1972; 45)

3.8.6. By 1927 education in England was not democratized nor was there any indication of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools as official policy.[12)]

3.8.6.1. Politicians however, had begun agitating for *"more education". In 1922* Tawney speaking for the Labour Party agitated for *"Secondary education for all".* The ideology of the Labour Party can be seen in this speech given by Tawney.

> *"The Labour Party is convinced that the only policy which is at once educationally sound and suited to a democratic community is one under which primary education and secondary education are organized as two stages in a continuous whole".*

He advocated that all normal children irrespective of

income, call or the occupation of their parents may be transferred at the age of 'eleven plus' from primary or preparatory to the secondary school and remain there until the age of sixteen. He also was of opinion that

> *"there should be the widest possible variety of type in secondary schools".* (Tawney cited by Hewitson 1969; 32)

The writer observes with interest, how the pendulum of educational concern was moving from education of the privileged and the rich to a concern for compulsory and free education for the masses, regardless of class or ancestry.

3.8.6.2. In 1926 came the report of the official consultative committee on the education of the adolescent known as the *Hadow Report*. This report made the following recommendations:

1. *The All-Age Elementary School would end. The Junior Section containing children up to the age of eleven was to be known as the Primary School.*

2. *From the age of eleven children would move into Secondary Education. This would consist of Grammar Schools and Secondary Modern Schools. The latter would be a full four year course. University graduates would teach in these schools.*

Reorganization as a result of the recommendation of the *Hadow Report* was begun with great enthusiasm. The economic difficulties of the Thirties and the Second World War unduly delayed necessary reforms in some areas. But the *Hadow Report* has undoubtedly been one of the most significant reports of the twentieth century, because it recommended a transfer at eleven plus years of age from the primary to the secondary school. Criteria for promotion would be age and would depend on *"physical, psychological and emotional factors and not exclusively on intellectual attainment".* (Hadow, cited by Behr and Macmillan 1971; 150). This view had a tremendous impact and continuing influence on the

educational thought in England and on other countries, including the Republic of South Africa.

3.8.6.3. *The Norwood Report of 1941* on curriculum and examinations in the secondary schools formed the basis of the *English tripartite* or three separate school systems. It was stated that there were three types of children (a view strongly contested today) and that there should be a separate school for each type.

1. *Those who could handle abstract ideas should go to grammar schools.*

2. *Those who were intelligent, but had practical bents should attend technical schools.*

3. *The rest should enter non-selective secondary modern schools.*

Such a system must depend for its *raison d' etre* upon the selection of pupils effected by means of the eleven plus examination, which included an intelligence test and tests in English and arithmetic.

3.8.6.4. Comment.

It was generally recognized that eleven years of age is far too early to select pupils on the basis of their future level of occupation. It was 'fashionable' at that time to place great reliance on the intelligence tests, but a human being is multi-factorial and mental ability cannot be judged by a stereotyped test. There could be an inestimable loss of talent, through such a foolhardy procedure. But in the context of the times, it was a method of identifying aptitude and ability, so as to eliminate the influence of privilege, be it by birth or money. The secondary modern school in time also had to include academic streams for brighter pupils, who wrote the General Certificate of Education

"O" Level as did the sixteen year old Grammar School pupils. The vocational education provided in these schools were job orientated and proved invaluable to many pupils. However, vocational guidance was not offered in these schools.

3.8.7. The weaknesses of the above system was realized. During the Second World War, when there was a strong feeling that Britain could not afford to win the war and lose the peace, education for all was considered to be a top priority. Deliberations led to the *Butler Education Act of 1944.*

3.8.7.1. This Act was

"more positive, more purposeful and more comprehensive than the previous Acts of 1870, 1902, 1918 and 1936, which it replaced... It regarded education as 'a continuous process conducted in three successive stages, primary, secondary and further' in each of which the education authorities were given specific duties as well as wide powers".

Bernard Lawrence maintains that a study of a selection of some of the changes illustrate its scope. The writer has studied the latter and those selected by Hewitson and will comment on those changes applicable to this study.

3.8.7.2. Comments on the 1944 Education Act.[13)]

It was stated in the Act that a Minister of Education replaced the Board of Education of 1902. The Minister was

"to promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose and to secure the effective execution by local authorities, under his control and direction, of the national policy of providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area".

The words *"comprehensive"* and *"varied"* have significant implications for the *history of Guidance and Counselling*. Comprehensive implies a large school, and it was then that the danger of the school becoming impersonal was realized. Varied meant there would be a need to choose and this implied the necessity for explanation concerning the alternatives. This too was realized. Therefore although the Act did not make mention of the need for a Guidance and Counselling service, educationists and sociologists of education realized in due course, that if the Act was to succeed in its claim of *"Education for All"* - a Guidance and Counselling service in secondary schools would be necessary.

3.8.7.3. <u>The Act also stated that</u>,

> *"The schools available for an area, shall not be deemed to be sufficient, unless they are sufficient in number, character and equipment to afford all pupils opportunities for education, offering such a variety of instruction and training as may be desirable in view of their different ages, abilities and aptitudes and of the different periods for which they may be expected to remain at school, including practical instruction and training appropriate to their repetitive needs".* (Source: Education Act 1944 cited by Hewitson)

The latter clause implied that it became a statutory duty of the authorities to provide efficient primary and secondary education for every child in their area, and also further education for any adults that required it.

It would seem to the writer that the Act stated the provisions required by the State for education, and left the administration of the Act to the various local authorities. If the latter realized that a Guidance and Counselling service was necessary to implement the Act, it was the duty of the local authority in charge of the secondary schools in the area to provide such a service. If in

another area, 'pastoral care' in the school, by reason of the personalities and qualifications of teachers at that school was satisfactory, then there was no law to enforce a "new" Guidance and Counselling service for that particular school. The service was required by implication rather than by law. This reasoning is proved by the following provision of the Act.

> *"Within a year of the Act coming into force, every local authority had to prepare and submit to the Minister "a development plan" showing how they proposed to supply the schools with all the amenities now considered necessary".* (cited by Hewitson 1969)

3.8.7.4. Other interesting points were:

The school leaving age was to be raised to fifteen years of age and at some future date to sixteen years of age. County colleges were set up and a child who left school at fifteen, would be required to attend there until the age of eighteen. This meant (theoretically) that no one in Britain would lose contact with the educational system until he was eighteen years of age.

A fact that the writer witnesses in action was the following provision:

> *"Throughout his school life there would be special allowance for milk, meals, clothing and travelling, so that poorer children would not be at a disadvantage".*

This provision was very far-sighted. Surely it was wiser to spend the taxpayer's money on prevention than on curing disease. By supplying food and clothing in the bitter English winter children from poorer homes are kept in good health. As the Headmistress of Brentford Secondary Modern School remarked to the writer, *"without this provision by the State, pneumonia and malnutrition occur".*[14] The provision of education to hungry children would be futile. This far-sighted humane policy is highly commendable. It shows that the authors of the Act were humane and realistic in

outlook.

Concerning fees, the Act laid down that the payment of school fees in the fully maintained schools of the local authority, was completely abolished. Direct Grant Schools, i.e. old endowed schools, e.g. from the Church or a Trust Fund could charge fees. Private schools could continue to charge fees but had to be registered and open to inspection to prove they were efficient.

In was an omnibus Act. It is not possible or within the frame of reference of this thesis to mention everything contained in its one hundred and twenty-two clauses and nine schedules.

Two final points are worthy of mention:

1. *All secondary schools of whatever type were to be given reasonable independence from the local authority by being given their own Boards of Governors.*

2. *All teachers' pay, whether for secondary Modern or Grammar school teachers, would be subject to the same system.* 15)

In this way it was hoped to overcome class prejudice and give complete parity of esteem to all types of secondary schools. Britain by this Act had a fully comprehensive system of secondary schools, varied in type and circumstances but united in providing the needs of the varied ages, abilities and aptitudes of their pupils.

> *"The law had made provision for an ideal situation - secondary education for all was on the Statute book in 1944. In reality there was a gap between the promised land of the Act and the harsh realities of the existing world".* (Hewitson 1969; 35)

3.8.8. Secondary Education in Post-World War II Britain.

Several practical factors made the full implementation of the Act difficult in the immediate post-war years. The writer will enumerate these briefly:

1. During the Second World War, over 5 000 schools providing accommodation for 300 000 pupils were destroyed by enemy action. These had to be replaced.

2. It was also necessary to build hospitals, factories, houses and roads in addition to the replacement of schools and the building of new schools to cope with the population increase.

3. A rise in the birth rate increased the number of children by about a third. Also the number of children staying in school beyond the age of fifteen increased.

4. There was change due to the mobility of the population. New areas developed and old areas declined.

5. The country was experiencing economic difficulties.

6. There were not enough teachers after the war. Fifty-five country houses were set up as emergency training colleges for teachers.

3.8.8.1. By 1964, 6 500 new schools had been built with impressive modern facilities. In other cases little appeared to have changed. Old buildings remained in use and the amenities necessary for a proper secondary education were not available. In consequence, middle class parents sent their children to private schools. Working class parents had no option but to go to State schools.

Howard (1958) makes the following comment:

"... *By the requirements of the 1944 Education Act the*

comprehensive school has to provide education suitable to the age, aptitude and ability of all its pupils and the means within its organization, whereby each pupil can be regarded as an individual, no matter how large the school". (1950; 12)

3.8.8.2. From the perspective of the present study, what is worthy of note is that the sociologists of education in Britain in this period had been influenced by the ideological considerations that had emerged.

"The sequence of reports from the Central Advisory Council - "Early Leaving (1954), Crowther (1959), Newsom (1963) and Plowden (1967); the Robbins Report (1963), and the successive sociological enquiries (e.g. Mays 1962, Douglas 1964, Bernstein 1965) which have illustrated the still very marked variations in life-chances between children of different social levels, have acted as both cause and effect of the continuing concern to democratize our educational system". (Craft 1969; 11)

The most significant result of the 1944 Education Act was that it spelt out the relationship of the individual and the State. Maurice Craft relates the rise of guidance and counselling in British schools *"to the prevailing political ideology of post-war years"* (1969; 19). He points out that an egalitarian educational policy is perhaps more concerned with the individual than the benefit the State might derive. Yet as has been suggested in Chapter Two of this dissertation, the development of Guidance and Counselling is related to economic factors. As Craft states, many writers hold the opinion that,

"... the benefit of the State was the prime aim and that of the individual was more incidental". (1969; 19)[16)]

The facts are that a technological society has "structural imperatives". The need for skill, the need to select able people to responsible positions; the need for these persons to be trained

in theory and practice in the respective specialities required in twentieth century society. The basic requirement in order to fulfill these needs is education, catering for varying interest and ability.

Matthew Arnold's prophetic suggestions for the promotion of education, eighty years ago applied to post-war England.

> *"A man without the requisite scientific knowledge undertakes to build a difficult bridge: he builds three which tumble down and so learns how to build a fourth which stands, but somebody pays for these failures".* (Curtis and Boultwood 1964; 452)

He recommended scientific training *"as was already the case in France"*. The comprehensive school system was introduced in order to supply the manpower to fulfill these needs.

3.8.8.3. A great deal of literature is available on comprehensive schools (e.g. Griffiths 1971; Rubenstein 1969 and Simon 1970). Griffiths remarks that the

> *"English educational system is decentralized, untidy and, compared with European systems, unique in its relative freedom from control by the central government".* (Griffiths 1971; 7)

Therefore in the administration of the 1944 Education Act, the various local authorities adapted the requirements of the Act (but within its framework) to the needs of their area, e.g. in 1967 the Inner London Education Authority, which had in April 1965 taken responsibility for education in the area previously covered by the London County Council (L.C.C.) published a review of its seventy-seven comprehensive schools.

> *"If there is such a thing as a typical comprehensive school it probably has an 8-Form entry with a current roll of around 1 200 and an ultimate roll of 1 400".* (cited by Griffiths 1971; 35)

In Griffiths' analysis of comprehensive schools he mentions that the difficulties arising from large numbers, have produced complex organizational schemes, in order to provide a milieu in which the individual child is neither forgotten or overshadowed. In seeking an answer for the problem, the *American system of a Guidance and Counselling service* within the school was seen to be a solution. This service suited the new concern for differences in the interests and aptitudes of the pupils. It also suited the curriculum offered. The first three years provided a general education in as many subjects as possible, but thereafter subject *choices* had to be made in terms of interest and ability. The school counsellor - knowledgeable in educational counselling, would be an ideal member of staff, to assist pupils make these choices. Comprehensive schools are achievement orientated and success in examinations are their principle aim. These schools therefore needed a Guidance Department within the school to give attention to the *personal, educational and vocational* requirements of pupils, if they were to reach their maximum potential.

Having traced the history of secondary schools to this stage - the introduction of comprehensive schools, as a result of the 1944 Education Act - the writer *will now relate the facts concerning the introduction and development of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in England.*

3.9 The Advent of Guidance and Counselling.

The history of Guidance and Counselling in England can only be gathered from indirect sources. There has been no legislation, which specifically introduced the Guidance and Counselling service into British secondary schools.

It is clear that behind the intense debates about comprehensive schools and the reorganization of secondary education, was the concern that the maximum number of the Nation's children should be educated to their maximum potential, despite the

"inherited inequalities" in the society.

3.9.1. According to many sources, (e.g. Williams (1973); Marland (1974), Jones (1977)), the first specific reference to school counselling in an official Government paper in Britain occurred in the 1963 *Newsom Report* in which it was stated that,

> *"In large schools it may not be fanciful to look forward to a stage where there is a full-time Counsellor available to advise pupils throughout their school course and to prepare them for going out into the world".* (1963)

3.9.2. As has been shown, the flexibility of the educational system in England, allows the respective local authorities to introduce innovations and change as they deem it necessary in their respective areas - the history of counselling in England is expressed in the actions of each individual local authority.

A description of one or two such innovations will be used as an example of the historical development of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in England. The writer has shown that these changes are in keeping with government policy.

3.9.3. In 1965 the Bristol Local Education Authority, anxious to implement the 1944 Education Act, took cognisance of the proposals of the Newsom Report. This educational authority invited Ken Williams (a housemaster in a large urban comprehensive school) to study the means of implementing the Newsom Report. He decided to do a study on the *Leisure Hours of Pupils in the Fourth and Fifth Years of School* (1965).

> *"The experience of having the undivided attention of a sympathetic adult listener, released a flood of problems from some of these adolescents".* (Williams 1973; vii)

Through this experience, and the findings of teachers from other local authorities, it was realized,

"that there was a great need for a counsellor in every school to whom the pupils would turn with their problems". (Williams 1973; vii)

As a result, on returning to his school

"the headmaster removed me from my housemaster's post and created a new position within the school - school-counsellor". (Williams 1973; viii)

3.9.4. In June 1966 The Schools Council Committee on the Raising of the School Leaving Age decided to conduct a brief survey of procedures in school counselling and guidance.

The result of the survey was reported in *Working Paper No. 15* entitled *"Counselling in Schools"*. The following information emerged:

The guidance of young people of school age in personal, educational and vocational matters was for long subsumed under the general heading of *Pastoral Care* as one of the functions of the school teacher. In this function he was aided in different degrees by external services of various types, such as the Youth Employment service, the school Medical service, and the Psychological services - as well as by the internal organization of the school itself.

The survey found

"Due to changing social and educational climates, there is now developing a fairly widespread even though as yet small movement, towards the training of workers in the new profession, as it is in this country - of School Counsellors". (Working Paper No. 15, 1967; 1)

In 1967 in Britain five institutions had an interest in counselling or related programmes. They were as follows:

The University of Keele	Institute of Education
The University of Reading	Institute of Education
The University of Exeter	Institute of Education
The University of Leeds	Institute of Education
The University of Manchester	Department of Education.

In addition there were the following:

Colleges of education, e.g. Edge Hill, Department of Sociology, under Maurice Craft.
The Tavistock Institute, London.
Colleges of Education.
Individual Schools.
The National Foundation of Educational Research.

A typical way in which counselling was being instituted was described in *Working Paper No. 15. Counselling in Schools* (1967; 45):

1. *Introduction by the Headmaster of the Counsellor to the school. The headmaster gives a resume of his or her job.*

2. *Introduction to the Staff. A brief talk to the staff on his or her work and function.at a special staff meeting.*

3. *Introduction to the Parents: (a) by letter, (b) by a short article in the school magazine, or at a Parent's evening.*

Contact with the counsellor is made in the following manner:

1. *Staff referrals.*
2. *By parents or other referrals.*
3. *As the result of Group counselling.*
4. *Self-referrals by appointment.*
5. *Through routine interviews of each individual in their respective classes.*

The Pitfalls encountered in Counselling in Britain in 1967 were summed up in Working Paper No. 15 as follows:

1. *Confusion of, and conflict between, roles.* *As a teacher the counsellor is authoritarian. As a counsellor pupils who are disciplined by him or her, will not wish to consult him or her, if they have difficulties.*

2. *Shortage of Time for Interviewing Pupils.* *This occurs if interviews are arranged only during breaks, to avoid removing pupils from other lessons, or because the counsellor is also a part-time teacher.*

3. *Too Rigid plans for referrals can lead to friction with Staff.* *It was found desirable "to channel" all staff referrals through the form teacher to the counsellor, and to feed back non-confidential information in the same way. This method was found cumbersome in a large school.*

4. *Lack of proper Accommodation.* *Apart from the Counsellor's own feelings, many pupils cannot relax and talk freely in cramped conditions without privacy and proper facilities.*

5. *In 1967 in Britain, the survey found that there was misunderstanding as to the Counsellor's role, e.g. if a boy was a truant, the counsellor could help or prevent later or more serious trouble by investigating the emotional or social aspects of the cause of the truancy, and not have to wait until the headmaster has issued his verdict or punishment.*

3.10 In 1968 a National Conference on Guidance and Counselling in British schools was held at Exeter University.[17] The conference was designed to examine, clarify and evaluate some of the most significant issues relating to the appointment of counsellors in British schools

"which is now just beginning". (1968)

The symposium that resulted reflected the conviction that professionalization of 'Pastoral Care' in British schools was necessary and desirable. This was the case for both the individual and the society. Hugh Lytton in the post-script to the symposium states:

> *"In the preceding chapters of this symposium references to American literature and practice in Counselling abound and one becomes impressed with how much we in Britain are indebted to that country, for the concepts, the careful elaboration of techniques and the very terminology we employ in this new profession".* (Lytton 1968; 103)

The crucial issues that arose out of the conference at the University of Exeter were summarized by Lytton (1968; 107) and serve to illustrate the stage counselling was at in secondary schools in England at this time (1968).

These issues were as follows:

3.10.1. 1. <u>The need for counselling.</u>

There was widespread and growing awareness of the need for more systematic and professional help with the problems of adolescence with which counselling deals. The necessity for a separate professional to exercise these functions is however still very much under debate.

3.10.2. 2. <u>Training.</u>

Again while the need for full training is gaining wider recognition, the relative importance of personality on the one hand or professional training on the other is an issue by no means fully resolved.

3.10.3. 3. <u>Employment.</u>

The universities' output of trained counsellors, was

not sufficient by a long way to meet the needs of the schools, once the extent of these needs has been fully recognized. But local education authorities will have to decide how many posts they are (or feel they ought) to make available for trained counsellors.

3.10.4. 4. Career Structure.

In 1968 the question, *"Is Counselling a career that the best fitted and the most able will find worthwhile to pursue?"* was debated. The career structure of counselling - assuming that there are counsellors - was an issue that still hung in the balance in England in 1968.

The overall aim of the conference at Exeter was to explore the shape and nature of the concept of counselling that best suited the needs of British society, and of the British Educational System based on the flexible system, which gives power to each local authority.

Apart from the good of the individual, writers on the need for counselling saw it in a wider context. Commenting on the fear that the introduction of counselling would cause a dimunition of the teacher's role, Hugh Lytton wrote,

> *"In a technological society there is an increasing need for Guidance on educational and vocational choices, if true equality of opportunity is to be achieved".* (1968; 82)

3.11 In the 1970-1980 decade of Guidance and Counselling in Britain, Rowe and Helen Whale (1978) have described two of the more successful schemes, in which counselling in the sphere of emotional and social adjustment were begun. The writer will detail the introduction of counselling at the Mayfield School in London, in which Helen Whale was headmistress. She stated the following:

> *"We found the right person. She is married and the mother of three children. She is a graduate and a trained teacher,*

with some years of teaching experience. She has a diploma in Sociology and also took the Marriage Guidance Council's course in preparation for counselling work. Above all these valuable qualifications, she is the kind of person we all like".

Helen Whale then described the school and the service the counsellor offered. The school population was 2 000 girls. She was employed part time. Initially she came once a week. This was inadequate, so she brought a colleague. Counselling was then offered on two days a week.

"She started with the third year form, every girl writes a brief autobiography ... from this the counsellor can judge whether the girl needs more individual help. Group counselling is also part of the programme".

The writer has included this description in order to gain insight into the stage, counselling in England was in a typical comprehensive school in the beginning of the 1970 era.

3.11 In some areas, "school social workers" have been appointed. They were referred to as "persons in charge of Pastoral Care". In other schemes "outside specialists" came into the school to hold discussion groups on "personal relations". (The modern euphemism for sex education.) The discussions are extended on an individual basis to other personal problems. This was the method begun in the Avondale project in London in 1968.

In 1973 Rose and Marshall wrote of school counselling in England, that heed should be taken of the *Seebohm Report* (1938) which stated clearly that families are units to be treated as wholes. Adolescents do not cease to be members of a family when they go to school. Schools cannot isolate themselves from the communities they serve,

"There is every sign that education and social service

departments are rapidly growing apart. There is an urgent need to arrest this development". (Rose and Marshall 1973; 244)

The latter authors were of opinion that administrators must realise this and strive to create organizations that deal with people, families and communities as they exist, and not merely in ways that are administratively convenient. Marland (1974) expressed the same opinion. Rose, Marshall and Marland all advocated co-operation between school-social workers or school counsellors and the wider community welfare service, as sound practice in this decade. (1970-1980)

3.12 Conclusion.

As a result of studying the literature the writer is of opinion that the need for a counselling service in secondary schools in Britain has been accepted by administrators, teachers, sociologists and educationists. The individual local authority has the power to make the decision (in consultation with the school itself) as to the number of teacher-counsellors or social workers employed at each school, in the area under their jurisdiction. The professional quality of the service depends on whether it is a full time or part time appointment, and on the qualification and personality of the counsellor or social worker selected to the position or positions in the respective schools.

As suggested at the conference held at the University of Exeter in 1968, and in subsequent publications and journals, the three components of counselling have been accepted as norms. They are Vocational, Educational and Personal counselling (Jones 1977). Although based on the American system, the British have devised their own methods to suit their educational system.

However, it would appear from the literature in both countries that the problems of adolescence and the need for

educational and vocational counselling all have their foundation in the continuing process of social change, that has become characteristic of Western society. Counselling is one of the safety valves for the individual in need of "help". This is why it was encouraged by the National Association of Mental Health (Williams 1971; 18). Sound mental health is necessary in order to actualize potential, which is the aim of comprehensive schools in Britain. Vocational, educational and personal counselling have their foundation in this and other aims.

In Resume.

Education in Britain has come a long way if it is considered that well into the nineteenth century "children grew up illiterate", that only in 1870 did elementary education become compulsory, and in 1891 compulsory and free. It is well to remember that before 1870 there was no continuous progress from elementary into secondary schools in Britain. Those 'secondary schools' that existed were privately endowed schools.

A century later, as a result *of the following factors*, not only does education in Britain cater for all types of individuals but it caters for differences in interests and aptitudes of individuals, in an effort to gain maximum achievement and thereby happiness for each.

The *first* of these factors was *legislation*. This made secondary education a reality for the population in England, as education changed and admitted more of the population. The Legislation of 1899, 1902, 1918, 1936 and finally the Butler Education Act of 1944 was enacted, so that all could be educated.

The second factor was the Reports that stimulated the legislators into action. These came from the Central Advisory Council. They were as follows:

The Early Leaving Report (1954)
The Crowther Report (1959)
The Robbins Report (1963)
The Newsom Report (1963)
The Plowden Report (1967)

There were also successive sociological studies. They were as follows:

The work of Mays 1962.
The Douglas investigation 1964.
The work of Bernstein from 1945-1965.
The writings of Floud and Halsey and of Burns and Young. The above were all sociologists of note, whose contributions were invaluable to the understanding of the educational needs of the twentieth century. In fact it was the sociologist Burns who challenged the assumptions of those who were responsible for the 1944 Education Act. He stated that,

> *"A series of studies carried out during the 1950's demonstrated conclusively that the Act had not achieved equality of opportunity".* (Burns cited by Bernbaum 1977; 28)

Burns concluded that,

> *"The role of the sociology of education is to examine, to question, to raise doubts about, to criticise the assumptions on which current theory and current practice are based".* (Burns cited by Bernbaum 1977- 29)

Therefore the link between the Sociology of Education and the needs of society are brought into focus. The criticism of the fact that the Butler Education Act of 1944 had in itself not entirely achieved equality of opportunity, points to the fact, stated by the Newsom Report of 1963, that the American idea of school counsellors in secondary schools was necessary in Britain, in order to translate the intention of the legislators of the 1944 Act into

actuality.

Conclusion.

During the nineteenth century dual systems of secondary education developed in England and Europe based upon social distinctions. In the twentieth century the stress has been on the provision of educational opportunities for all, to meet the requirements of the technological society. Guidance and Counselling services developed to aid the implementation of these ideals, and in order to cater for differentiation in education. They have basically been introduced as Hansen stated, to overcome *"the out-moded class system"*.

NOTES.

1) It is detailed in this dissertation in the section on Definitions of Guidance and Counselling.

2) This pamphlet was also referred to in the earlier part of this chapter - which explained the meaning of Counselling and Guidance.

3) In 1970-1980 their predictive validity has been questioned. But this is an historical account, not a controversial discussion on the validity of the tests of this period.

4) Most text books on Guidance and Counselling refer to the National Defence Education Act of 1958, e.g. Shertzer and Stone, Pietrofesa and Vriend and H.L. Munson are the sources for this information. Munson deals with this specifically in the *"Foundations of Developmental Guidance"* (1971; 13, 14).

5) The source for this information is H.L. Munson (1971; 13).

6) Attached is a photostat copy of the statement as given by John J. Pietrofesa and John Vriend in their work *"The School Counsellor as a Professional"*. Appendix A.

7) The American spell 'counselor' with one 'l'. If the writer is quoting directly this form will be used. If the writer is describing American attitudes re counselling, two 'lls' will be used, i.e. counsellor.

8) See Appendix B. *The Role of the Secondary School Counselor* cited by Pietrofesa and Vriend. Reprinted with the permission of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

9) Full treatment will be given to the Rogerian theory and method of counselling in the section on theories related to counselling.

10) There are at least 40 000 counsellors in the United States covering some ninety percent of all students. Rose and Marshall (1974; 2).

11) Source: Curtis and Boultwood.

12) In the United States of America Guidance and Counselling was already becoming established, e.g. in 1917 it was estimated that there were some fifty school counsellors. (Shertzer and Stone 1971; 50.)

13) Source: *Guidance and Counselling in British Schools*, edited by Craft and Lytton (1969).

14) In 1961, the writer, when teaching in London, witnessed the headmistress give a needy child a new wool cardigan and tickets for free hot meals, well served in the school dining room. The school was Brentford Secondary Modern School.

15) In 1944 the Education Act required the Minister to set up a Committee known as the Burnham Committee to determine for his approval scales of salaries for teachers in England and Wales. In 1963 the discrepancy between the salaries of secondary school men and women teachers was abolished so that no differences remained between the salaries of men and women. (Lawrence 1971; 158.)

16) Source: *Guidance and Counselling in British Schools*, edited by Craft and Lytton (1969).

17) The writer is aware that this conference has been mentioned in Chapter Two, when the meaning and definitions of Counselling by English authors was discussed. Here it is mentioned in its historic context and no reference will be made to issues referred to in Chapter Two.

CHAPTER FOUR.

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA - AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE.

> *"Sociologists can and often must, use historical material in their attempts to understand the workings of social systems".* (Musgrave 1970; 2)

4.1 The writer is in agreement with Musgrave that this method adds substance to any "contemporary empirical material". Sociologists interested in social change (as is the writer), have no laboratory to test their conclusions. They are then forced to examine past historical change in order to understand the present and develop hypotheses that will apply to the future. In this way,

> *"history provides a laboratory for the development of sociological theory".* (*ibid* 1976; 4)

The point is that,

> *"Historians and sociologists have their central interests in common, since both examine the actions of human beings in various social situations, the aims and values that seem to be behind behaviour and the changes that occur through time in aims values and behaviour".* (*Ibid* 1970; 1)

4.1.1. In keeping with this thinking the writer preludes the description of the development of the Guidance and Counselling service for Whites[1)] in the Republic of South Africa with a brief overview of the history of the Republic of South Africa. This is followed by a brief account of the historical development of education in each of the four provinces until 1910. The sociological and economic factors from 1910-1930 and their effect on education and on the development of Guidance and Counselling services are then put forward. The early vocational guidance services which followed this period are given.

Then the deliberations of the various commissions which led to *Differentiated Secondary Education* and to the establishment of *a national Guidance and Counselling service for Whites is described.* Both of the latter were legalized through the passing of legislation known as *The National Policy Education Act No. 39 of 1967* and

> *"the report of a committee appointed by the Human Sciences Research Council for differentiated education and guidance in connection with a national system of education at primary and secondary school level with reference to school guidance as an integrated service of the system of education for the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa".*

The details of the service for Whites is then described.[2)]

4.2 An Overview of the History of the Republic of South Africa.

The Renaissance with its spirit of enquiry led to the Voyages of Discovery. They were prompted by other forces. The Reformation had seen the end of one faith (Catholicism) dominating Europe and the known World. Protestantism was born and later there were off-shoots from its main stem, e.g. Puritanism and Calvinism. But religious toleration was not yet the rule in Europe. The Puritans left their homeland England and sailed in the "Mayflower" for North America in 1609. The United States of America, as has been shown, was the ultimate result. Similarly, in 1652 the Dutch East India Company, owned by Hollanders, endeavouring to establish trade with the East, established at first a refreshment station at the southern most point of Africa, the Cape, and in 1652 a colony was established by this commercial company, who appointed Jan Van Riebeek as its governor.

The ranks of these people were later strengthened by the French Huguenots who arrived in the Cape from 1688 onwards. These immigrants had revolted against the religious persecutions of

Louis XIV of France and fled from the country of their birth. Political circumstances in Holland made the Prince of Orange of Holland ask the British to occupy the Cape from 1795-1803. From 1803-1806 a new government in Holland known as the Batavian Republic reoccupied the Cape. It was ruled by two commissioners, De Mist and Janssens. However, this rule was short lived and in 1806 the British occupied the Cape for the second time. Since Holland's sea-power had collapsed, and rather than allow the French to occupy this strategic point en route to the East - which was valuable for its spice trade - Britain took over the government of the Cape.

In 1820 the English reinforced their occupation with British immigrants who settled in the Eastern Cape. By 1838 a percentage of the original Dutch settlers, dissatisfied with British rule decided to "trek" into the unknown hinterland of South Africa to seek freedom from British rule. These pioneers established themselves in areas which became the Orange Free State, Natal and the Transvaal. These four separate areas contained Dutch, English and other races. In the Western Cape the aboriginees were Bushmen and Hottentots. In the Eastern Cape the Xhosa tribes were found. The Zulus were the dominating African tribe in Natal. Other African tribes were found in the Transvaal, the Matabele and the Swazis. The Basutos were found in the Free State. They were all part of the Bantu-speaking tribes of South Africa. There were intermittent land wars between the black tribes and the white settlers. There was also dissension between the Dutch White settlers and the English settlers.

When diamonds and gold were discovered in the Kimberley area and on the Witwatersrand reef many foreigners came to South Africa. This led from 1890 to conflict and eventually to the Anglo-Boer War (1899-1903). The British won the war and did their utmost to win the peace. Each of the four colonies was given responsible government by the British. There was however, a movement afoot that the colonies should unite. This became a reality

in 1910, when the Union of South Africa came into being with Louis Botha as its first Prime Minister. In 1961, after two world wars and tremendous economic and technological development, the Union Government ceased to exist. The country became a republic independent of Britain and the Commonwealth.

Its cultural mix arose from the Dutch, English, the French and other European immigrants, e.g. German and Jewish immigrants. The education system introduced reflected the culture and religion of the dominant White races of the country. These were those who had come from Holland - The Dutch, later known as Afrikaners with Afrikaans as their language and the English originally from England with English as their home language.

> *"As a cultural community develops, so various societal relationships such as state, church and school come into being".* (R.M. Ruperti 1975; 3)

4.3 The Roots of the South African Educational System.

4.3.1. Introduction.

Historians such as Behr, Behr and Macmillan, E.G. Malherbe, Boyce, Walker *et.al.* are of opinion that the Dutch settlers in the Cape brought with them a tradition of religious education. The Dutch East India Company ruled for the first 150 years of the European settlement in the Cape. The principles embodied in the National Education Policy Act (No. 39 of 1967), the main legislation on which present-day education for Whites is based in South Africa, is firmly rooted in the past. Therefore, a brief overview of the main trends in the history of education in South Africa is deemed advisable to provide perspective.

4.3.2. The Cape.

Until well into the second half of the nineteenth century, the provision of education was negligible. The writer acknowledges

the historical research of Behr in his work *New Perspectives in South African Education* for facts concerning the development of education in the Cape and in Natal.

In the eighteenth century formal schooling was mainly religious and under the direct control of the Dutch Reformed Church, through bodies such as the consistory, the scholarch (1713), and the Bible and School Commission in 1813. In the early nineteenth century there were a few public schools, but more numerous were private farm schools. They were found around the Stellenbosch and Drakenstein villages. The farmers hired instructors to teach their children. These instructors did act in an advisory capacity in regard to education. These schools catered for children from a few neighbouring homesteads. Schools were small and colonists believed that education was not the concern of the State, but a private matter and at most, the concern of the church. The teaching if not of a high standard served to stave off illiteracy. Historians presume that any advice to younger members of the family was given by the parents or close relatives. The Dominee was an important figure in the community and was consulted concerning family problems. The families were close-knit and the Bible was the main source, quoted as an example of moral standards.

During the first British occupation of the Cape from 1795-1803 no material changes were made. In the short period (1803-1806) when the Batavian Republic ruled the Cape, Commissioner De Mist made a valiant attempt to introduce a very comprehensive liberal system of secular education. The scheme came to nought, because the Batavian interlude was too short. When the British occupied the Cape in 1806, attention was immediately given to educational matters. Sir John Cradock, who assumed the office of Governor in 1811, instituted the first significant changes.

However, it was not until the 1820's that a system of secular schools in the British tradition sponsored by the Governor, Lord Charles Somerset began to take shape. In 1822 he decreed by

proclamation that English would thenceforth be the official language of the colony. The church was to be Anglicized and the instruction of the English language be promoted wherever possible. These measures were resented by the Afrikaans section of the population.

The appointment in 1839 of a full-time official, known as the *Superintendant-General of Education* signalled the transfer of education from *Church to State*. A system of grants-in-aid from the central government to schools established through local endeavour was instituted in the Cape Colony. This gave rise later to a similar system in Natal and the Boer Republics.

It should be noted that the Dutch children were not compelled to receive instruction through the medium of English. (Education was not compulsory until well into the twentieth century.) Parents had to pay fees (except in the case of the poor); and no one was restricted from opening a private school.

The process of Anglicization of the schools began with the arrival of the first British teachers (mainly Scots) who were required to teach

> *"the English language grammatically, writing, arithmetic, the first principles of sacred music and the principles of the Christian religion".* (Behr 1978; 5)

James Rose-Innes was the first Superintendant-General of Education. He held office from 1839-1859. He placed the established school system on a more systematic basis. He created two categories of State schools, i.e. first and second class: the former offering primary and secondary courses, the latter a primary course only. The primary course was free to all, but fees had to be paid for secondary instruction, except by deserving pupils of limited means. Later in 1843, a system of State-aided schools which were categorised third class, were brought into being.

During the Rose-Innes period, English was to be a subject of instruction, but not necessarily the medium of instruction. Religious instruction was not denominational. Children whose parents so desired, could be exempt from attending religious instruction classes. The principle of local community involvement in the establishment of and responsibility for the continued welfare of schools especially State-aided schools, became entrenched. The foundation was laid for a system of State-aided schools which in subsequent years, formed a network throughout South Africa.

By 1862 there were over one hundred State-aided schools in the Cape Colony and nine State schools. As the colony developed, secondary education became more widely established. As in Scotland, the secondary classes simply formed the top of the primary school.

In 1859-1892, Langham Dale became Superintendant-General of Education in the Cape. He introduced the British pupil-teacher system. This system did provide the colony with a greater number of teachers who had at least some training. Dale introduced the system of one-teacher farm schools for children in remote rural areas. They were established in areas where no school existed within a radius of five miles and where five children could be assembled. *These schools, partly State and partly private, became a feature of educational provision for the whole of South Africa until well into the twentieth century.* They provided a limited degree of literacy.

The provision of hostel accommodation at primary schools in rural towns was begun. A transport system was provided,

> *"initially donkeys - but later motor buses were used to transport children from remote areas to schools".*
> (Behr 1978; 6)

The term of office of Muir as Superintendant-General of Education (1892-1915) coincided with a period of profound political

upheaval in the country. There was the Anglo-Boer War, followed in 1909 by the National Convention and the formation of the Union of South Africa.

Muir, however, did make the system of education in the Cape more efficient. He introduced a system of compulsory attendance at primary school - through the *School Board of 1905. This Act gave school boards the power* to make attendance at school between the ages of seven and fourteen years *compulsory in their districts.* At the time of *Union (1910) no fewer than ninety-one out of one hundred and nineteen school boards had instituted compulsory school attendance.* By 1913, all had come into line and compulsory primary education had become entrenched in the Cape Province. This was adopted by the Transvaal in 1907 and in Natal and the Orange Free State in 1910 (for White children).

By 1910 the Cape had *a system of secondary education of a praiseworthy level.* Good academic standards were maintained by Scottish teachers. These were reinforced by the policy of the Joint Matriculation Board. The Dutch-speaking people, however, regarded the school system as an imposition from without and alien to their culture and traditions. The language issue of importance in education was becoming political.

4.4 Natal up to 1910.

In 1824 a small party of British settlers had established themselves at Port Natal. In 1835 they resolved at a special meeting to lay out a town (Durban) and

> *"to reserve a convenient site of 2 000 acres for a free school".* (Behr 1978; 7)

During 1837-1838, contingents of Boers led by Piet Retief and Karel Landman arrived with the intention of settling in Natal. Camps were set up in Port Natal, Pietermaritzburg and elsewhere. This constituted the Voortrekker Republic - but its existence was

short-lived, for in 1843 the British annexed Natal. The Voortrekkers crossed the Drakensberg and made their homes in the Transvaal and Orange Free State. Natal became predominantly British.

Children of the trekkers had little schooling. This consisted of elements of reading and writing and religious instruction. Between 1840-1847 an American Missionary Lindley taught one hundred young Voortrekker children to read and write and do simple arithmetic at a school he established near the Newton Adams Mission Station on the Umlazi River.

In 1845 Natal became a dependency of the Cape Colony; later it became a British colony in its own right. Initially the control of education was vested in the Lieutenant Governor. *In 1849 a Government School Commission* was appointed to establish *an education system.* However, it was only in 1859 that the first *Superintendant of Education was appointed.* The man appointed was R.J. Mann who remained in office until 1870. He laid the foundations of a system of primary education which remained in force for a considerable time.

Mann found a *system of transitory schools* existed in the rural areas. A number of children would meet at a convenient place and remain there for six months and be taught to read and write, with the object mainly for preparation for church membership. Mann ensured these schools received State-aid. He concluded that *three qualifications* were needed by teachers who worked among the Dutch colonists. They should be members of the Dutch Reformed Church, and proficient in Dutch and English. All teachers should be compelled to devote part of their time to teaching English.

During Mann's term of office (that is from 1859-1870) *three types of schools came into being*, State, State-aided and private. The latter schools were a heterogeneous collection over which the Superintendant of Education had no control. Even in

respect of State-aided schools, his control was limited. By 1869 there were *2 300 pupils* attending *76 schools*.[3] The school population had increased in the decade by three hundred percent, the number of schools had grown by six hundred percent. But there was no coherent system of education.

Mann was succeeded by *Warick Brooks* in 1870 to be followed by *Robert Russell* in 1875. Russell remained in charge of education until *1901*. During his long tenure of office he made a considerable impact on subsequent development.

In 1872 an Education Commission was appointed. Its report was tabled in 1874. This showed the position of education in Natal to be unsatisfactory, particularly in the country districts, schools had become institutions of *private adventure*. Accommodation was inadequate and instruction was inefficient. (This Commission showed concern for the individual.)

The 1872 Commission made the following recommendations:

The State should take greater responsibility.
A Council of Education should be appointed.
The Commission recommended a system of local committees. (There was contact between home and school as parents were members of the committees.)
Every child should receive primary education at public cost.
They recommended that primary education be made compulsory as soon as feasible.
The Commission envisaged three grades of primary schools. First grade schools for the rural areas; second grade schools for the towns; and second grade higher primary schools which were to provide the pupils with the necessary preparation *for secondary education*.
A system of examinations were to be instituted.
Inspectors were appointed to assist the Superintendant-General in his work. (Source: Behr 1978)

The main principles of the Commission were approved of

by the British authorities. They recognized the value of voluntary effort, the rights of conscience and the importance of Biblical instruction. The result was the adoption of legislation in 1877 of Acts Numbers fifteen and sixteen. The former made provision for *primary or elementary education in the Colony of Natal.* The latter was concerned with matters relating to *higher education* and the direction and maintenance of the high school in Pietermaritzburg (established in 1863) and one in Durban (established in 1866).

These Acts came into operation *in 1878.* They *were a milestone in education in Natal.*

A curriculum was laid down for all primary schools and comprised the following subjects.
Reading and writing in English; English composition and Grammar; arithmetic up to and including decimal fractions; the History of England and South Africa; elementary geography; elementary science; elementary drawing; singing; physical exercises and needlework and domestic science for girls. No provision was made for teaching Dutch. *There was religious instruction which had to be inter-denominational and was not compulsory.*

In order to qualify for high school between *1884-1893* in Natal, a pupil had to comply with the requirements of the *English Education Code.* This examination tested not only the pupil's ability to do arithmetic computations and to read and write English, but also his knowledge of the geography of Great Britain, Ireland and Natal the the history of England in outline up to the Norman Invasion. The teaching of Dutch was neglected. Russell felt *The Dutch farmers were taking to the English tongue.*

The outbreak of the Anglo-Boer War in 1899 resulted in considerable disruption of education. All schools north of Colenso were closed. Some schools were used as military hospitals, e.g. Newcastle, Dundee, Estcourt and Pietermaritzburg. There was an influx of refugees from Northern Natal, the Orange Free State and

the Transvaal. The schools became overcrowded.

After the war, the fifteen-twenty *Christian National Schools* which had been established in the Northern districts of Natal by the Boers to *preserve their language and religion were brought under State control.* By 1907 Dutch was taught in a number of schools, and by 1913 Mudie - the Superintendant of Education - recommended that *both sections of the population are advised to study the two official languages.* The fact was that *Article 137 of the Union of South Africa Act (1909)* stated that,

> *"both the English and Dutch languages shall be official languages of the Union and be treated on a footing of equality and possess and enjoy equal rights and privileges.*

4.5 The Transvaal until 1910.

The development of education in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State will be given because their development illustrates the history of Christian National education which is written into the *National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967.*

The Voortrekkers who left the Cape, according to Walker, Behr and Macmillan *et.al.* continued to give attention to the education of their children, at least so they could read the Bible. During the 1850's settled communities were established in the Transvaal, e.g. Pretoria, Potchefstroom, Rustenberg and Lydenberg. An organized government in the form of a Volksraad was set up and teachers and ministers were brought out from the Netherlands. One of them, H. Van der Linden, was assigned the task of drawing up the first school regulations. These regulations, promulgated in 1852 can be regarded as the first *attempt in the Transvaal to formulate an education policy.*

It is interesting to note that the responsibility for education was placed in the hands of the *Church.* In 1859 the

Volksraad set up an education committee. Legislation known as Z.A.R. Education Ordinance 1859 (Die Zuid Afrikaansche Republiek) *specified that teachers had to be members of the Dutch Reformed Church.* They were required to give instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and general history. The Psalms used had to be those of the Nederduitsche Gereformeerde Kerk. This was in keeping with their reason for leaving the Cape, namely to escape the anglicizing policy of the British.

In 1872, Burgers became President of the Boer Republic. He worked out a plan for education which was embodied in his *Education Act No. 4 of 1874.* This Act made provision for the appointment of a *Superintendant-General of Education.* W.J. Van Gorkum was appointed to the post in 1876. The Act provided for three types of schools: *ward schools for the farming community; town schools providing an education up to Std. V; a Gymnasium at Pretoria to cater for secondary and higher education.* The Transvaal burghers thought not enough attention was given to religious instruction.

In 1877 the Transvaal was annexed as a British Colony, but the annexation only lasted until 1881. Nevertheless, this had a marked effect on education.

The Zuid-Afrikaansche Republiek which had originally come into being in 1860 in the Transvaal was *re-established in 1881,* under a triumvirate consisting of Paul Kruger, Joubert and Pretorius. A man of strong patriotic fervour was appointed as Superintendant of Education. He was the Rev. S.J. Du Toit of Paarl. He was a founder of the *Afrikaaner Bond,* a militant political and cultural organization aimed at further developing the cause of the newly formed Afrikaner Nation. He championed the cause of Afrikaans as a language, independent of Dutch. He moreover insisted that education had to be based on Christian principles. He believed that the responsibility for the education of the young rested not with the State, but with the parents under the supervision of the

Church. A new education law was adopted in 1882 in accordance with Du Toit's principles.

> *"He made religion the dominant aspect of teaching, the church the controlling force in education, and Dutch the only medium of instruction. He sowed the seed of a strong Afrikaner nationalism".* (Behr 1978; 12)

> *"During his term of office there was a great increase in schools and enrolment; from nine schools and two hundred and six pupils in 1881 - the numbers grew to two hundred and ninety-six and 6 990 respectively in 1890".* (Behr 1978; 12)

In 1891 Mansvelt, a former teacher and at the time Professor of Dutch at Victoria College (later Stellenbosch University), became Superintendant of Education. As a result of his efforts, *Education Act No. 8 of 1892 was passed.* Article 1 of this Act specified that there must be supervision of schools, to ensure that pupils receive the necessary

> *"Protestant Christian education; and for the establishment of an institution for higher education principally for the training of teachers and officials".* (Behr 1978; 13)

The law of 1892 provided for three types of schools - primary, including Standard III; secondary schools embracing Stds. IV to VI; institutions for more advanced education. By 1898, no less than ninety-two percent of the scholars were in primary schools and less than one percent in classes for instruction beyond Standard VI.

Other factors had occurred that influenced education in the Transvaal. *Gold* was discovered on the Witwatersrand in 1886. Thousands of immigrants, whom the Boers called 'uitlanders' (foreigners), streamed into the country. Mansvelt was hostile to any English influence; the *1892 Education Act* provided that Dutch would be the only medium of instruction had caused conflict between

the government and the immigrants. The 'uitlanders', who were predominantly British, refused to have their children taught through the medium of Dutch. They set up *in 1895, the Witwatersrand Council of Education* and established private schools. To counteract this move, the Volksraad resolved to establish schools for the British population on the Witwatersrand. *Special educational Legislation* for uitlanders was published in August 1896. In these schools English would be the medium of instruction. These schools did not meet with success and by mid-1890's there were some 2 000 English-speaking children attending *private schools*. These schools were under the jurisdiction of the Witwatersrand Council of Education.

> *"By the establishment of the Council a dual system of education was established, resulting in what Prof. J. Chris. Coetzee, a leading Afrikaans educationalist, called an "imperium in imperio" in the educational system of the Transvaal".* (Behr 1978; 14)

During the Anglo-Boer War the administration of education by the Government of Z.A.R.[4)] ceased to exist. Education was neglected due to military operations. The few schools that did remain open were assisted by funds from the Netherlands and

> *"these schools were to become the nucleus of the system of Christian National Schools that developed in opposition to the schools established by the British authorities when the war ended".* (Behr 1978; 14)

Camp schools were established by the British during the war. In order to staff these schools some 200 teachers were brought out from Britain and other parts of the British Empire. When the war terminated, these ceased to exist.

The war brought changes of great importance to the education, culture and tradition of the Afrikaner people. They were now confronted with a world view and liberal philosophy quite unlike the calvinistic and seventeenth century outlook and way of

life to which they were accustomed. As a result of the Peace Treaty of Vereeniging (1902) the Transvaal lost its identity and became the Transvaal Colony to be controlled as an integral part of the British Colonial Administration.

A New Era in the History of Education.

In the Transvaal, the existing educational laws were repealed and a new Public Education Ordinance of the Transvaal (No. 7 of 1903) was put into effect. A Department of Public Education under the control of a *Director of Education* was established. The ordinance provided for free elementary education at government schools for children both of whose parents were of European birth. It made provision for the establishment of facilities for university and technical education for Europeans, as well as for normal colleges for the training of teachers; furthermore for reformatories and schools for mentally and physically defective persons.

Alfred Milner, the Lieutenant Governor of the Transvaal Colony, through the education system,

> *"tried to Anglicize and denationalize the Boers".* (Behr 1978; 15)

Charles Somerset in the Cape in the eighteenth century used the church and the school for this purpose. Alfred Milner concentrated on schools only. *English* was made the sole *medium of instruction. Dutch* could be taught at the request of the parents. *Language* now more than ever became the symbol of a growing national consciousness among the Afrikaners. The situation was reversed, now Afrikaners established their own private schools under the auspices of *the Christian National Schools Movement.* These schools were the counterpart of those run by the Witwatersrand Council for Education. With regard to *secondary schools,* all instruction above Std. III was called *secondary education.*

In 1905 Milner was succeeded by Selborne. He permitted the use of Dutch as the medium of instruction until the Afrikaans pupil had mastered English, whereupon English became the medium of instruction.

In 1907 the Transvaal became a self-governing colony. *A new Education Act (No. 25 of 1907)* was promulgated. Its architect was *General J.C. Smuts*, then *Colonial Secretary and Minister of Education.*

The Act required pupils between the ages of seven and fourteen years of age to attend school regularly. The Act stated that in every public school the school day was to begin with prayer and a reading of a portion of the Bible. Religious instruction was not on a denominational basis. It could be given in English or Dutch or any other European language. Children could be excused from attending religious instruction if parents requested this. The medium of instruction up to the third standard could either be English or Dutch. Beyond this standard, Dutch could be used as a medium of instruction in subjects not exceeding two in number.

The educational policy in the Transvaal had become a matter of debate and a political issue. Regrettable though this was at the time, it had the effect of keeping educational provision in the forefront of public thinking. *Thus by 1910 a system of schools was established* in the Transvaal as adequate as that in the Cape and in many ways more progressive.

4.6 <u>The Orange Free State</u> had also been occupied by Whites during the period of the Great Trek from 1836-1854. During this time there was little organized education. *In 1848* one of the reasons why Sir Harry Smith annexed this territory to Britain was to combat the cultural decline of the people in the area. He established schools in Bloemfontein, Winburg and Smithfield. In 1854, as a result of the Bloemfontein Convention, this territory became independent. The newly *elected Volksraad* had no finances for

education and was preoccupied with the Basuto problem. *Sir George Grey, Governor of the Cape* in 1855, made a *monetary grant* on behalf of the British Government to the people of the Orange Free State for the purpose of establishing a good school at Bloemfontein.

> *"As a result Grey College School was founded in 1859 with Rev. Andrew Murray as the first principal. This school provided secondary education".* (Behr 1978; 17)

Only in 1872 did the Orange Free State Republic attend to education. An Inspector-General of education was appointed. His duty was to establish and maintain schools at government expense. John Brebner, a graduate of Edinburgh University, who had taught for twelve years in the Cape was appointed. Brebner was a Presbyterian Scot with a strong sympathy for the Calvinist Boer. He remained at the helm from 1874-1899.

The Volksraad allowed him 15 000 pounds for education.

> *"In his period of office the school enrolment grew from 575 in 1875 to 8 000 in 1899".* (Behr 1978; 18)

Compulsory education came gradually. In 1897 it became compulsory for children between the ages of ten to sixteen years of age to attend school. This was a forward step and placed the Orange Free State in the forefront of educational development in South Africa. Concerning the medium of instruction, the law was not strictly enforced except in the elementary grades. Officially, however, Dutch was the medium of instruction and the teaching of English as a subject was optional. In 1891 it was decided that Dutch should be the medium of instruction in all rural State schools. In the town schools, the medium of instruction up to Standard II was a matter of parental choice, but beyond that Standard, at least half of the subjects had to be taught through the medium of Dutch.

Secondary education developed slowly. In 1898 there were only two high schools, both in Bloemfontein. They were Grey

College School and the Eunice Dames Institute.

Behr's research shows that after the Anglo-Boer War the British authorities instituted a pattern of education in the Orange Free State (known as the Orange River Colony) that was identical to that of the Transvaal. The Director of Education, Hugh Gunn in 1904 was able to pursuade the Dutch Reformed Church to abandon its Christian National School system and allow its schools to come under the control of the government.

In 1907, responsible government was granted to the Orange River Colony and J.B.M. Hertzog became Minister of Education. He drafted a new Education Act which became law in 1908.

> *"The difference between the Hertzog Act and the Smuts Act was that the former made both languages as subjects compulsory from the beginning of schooling, and dual medium compulsory beyond Standard IV, the latter did not. The Smuts Act made the teaching of English obligatory, but the teaching of Dutch optional. Every child had to learn English, but not necessarily Dutch if the parents did not wish it".* (Behr 1978; 20)

The Hertzog Education Act was criticized by 'a small but vigorous and articulate group'. Some English-speaking parents complained that the Act was an infringement of parental rights. However, concurrently with the argument, the Union of South Africa came into being.

4.7 Comment on the Foregoing Historical Account of the Development of Education in the Cape, Natal, Transvaal and Orange Free State 1910.

4.7.1. Guidance and Counselling in any organized manner was unknown in schools in these areas. This was no different from the position in England. In America, in 1909, Parson's vocational guidance programmes were being established and counselling was introduced in secondary schools in some states.

The philosophy underlying the education of the emerging Afrikaans people was based on the Christian culture of the seventeenth century. This was the basis of Christian National Education. The British on the other hand, had come to South Africa in the nineteenth century. They were more liberal in outlook. Their attitude concerning religion was that it should be inter-denominational.

4.7.2. The Language Issue.

However, the British were intolerant of the Dutch language, e.g. Milner's policy in the Transvaal took no cognisance of the Afrikaner in this respect. Selborne who followed was more tolerant.

This early history illustrates that the language issue was an educational issue, but in fact was politically based and expressed the basic differences in culture in the two main White races. It was only after Union that gradually people began to regard themselves as South Africans, rather than Dutch or English.

4.7.3. After 1914 Afrikaans was substituted for Dutch in the schools of the provinces, but it was not until 1920 that this became accepted practice in all the provinces. In Natal the change became effective in 1921. In 1945 the Transvaal adopted new legislation in respect of language medium. The ordinance passed was designed to bring about dual medium instruction in a bilingual country. This is the position in White secondary schools in the Republic of South Africa. The concept of separate medium schools became official government policy when the National Party came into power in 1948.

> *"The language medium question has had the effect of producing a dichotomy of two separate cultures operating side by side in separate schools from kindergarten through to university".* (Behr 1978; 26)

Having considered the historical roots of Christian National Education and the language issue, both of which are inherent in the Guidance and Counselling services established as a result of

Act No. 39 of 1967, consideration will be given to sociological and economic factors from 1910-1930 and their effect on education and the development of Guidance and Counselling in the Republic of South Africa.

4.8 Sociological and Economic Factors from 1910-1930, and their effect on Education and the Development of Guidance and Counselling.

In the period after Union and the first World War (1914-1918), it was realized that South Africa faced a tremendous problem, viz. the poor White problem. Many Whites had, through circumstances, been the victims of cultural isolation and meagre education. In previous generations this type of person had lived on farms, either as a member of the farm family or as an employee or 'bywoner' on the farm. They were a class of society with no education. They were not trained in any skilled vocation, nor were they prepared to do manual labour. This was regarded as work for the Black man. This attitude stemmed from former times, e.g. in 1820, Sir George Grey's civilizing policy had opened trade schools for the Xhosa tribes. This action, although well-meaning, had psychologically excluded young Whites from such vocations.

After Union in a united South Africa, this class of person was a total misfit in a country where industrialization was on the increase. They were not fit to man the railways, the trams and buses or any of the new modes of mechanization that became part of the world of industry. Nor were they trained in modern agricultural methods. They were of a bygone era where a subsistence economy was the rule and where one could move on if one's farm became ruined.

In 1916 the Dutch Reformed Church concerned itself with the poor White question. They estimated that the number of this depressed class was approximately 100 000. In 1929, as in other parts of the Western world, an economic depression heightened the misery of the 'poor Whites'.

A commission known as the *Carnegie Commission* was appointed to investigate this problem. Great concern was shown for the individuals who had been the victims of these circumstances. According to Malherbe (Vol. II, 1977; 57), the commission undertook

> *"a three year survey of the problem reported in 1932 that out of the total White population of 1 800 000 there were 300 000 'Poor Whites'. For this number to have trebled during the fourteen years preceding the depression proved a disturbing revelation".*

It was beginning to be realized that while politicians and educators were fighting for the cultural rights of the Afrikaans-speaking section,

> *"a very large proportion of these very people, were being reduced by economic forces to a state where children starved and bare physical survival was in the balance".* (Malherbe Vol. II, 1977; 158)

Lack of education had led independent men and women of fine families to become recipients of charity and relief. Many of these people had flocked from the rural areas to the cities and created slums; others remained on the farms as poor 'bywoners'.

Malherbe's research shows that in 1930 a country-wide survey - part of the Carnegie Commission investigation - showed that even if they could obtain unskilled work, poor Whites were loath to do this. The survey investigated the occupations followed by 72 000 boys after leaving school at different stages of educational advancement. It was found that 18 000 boys (i.e. 47,1 percent) went in for farming. It was found that 58,3 percent of those who went into farming in one year had not completed the primary school (Std. VI); 31 percent had Std. IV; 5 percent had passed Std. VII; 4,5 percent only Std. VIII and 1,5 percent Std. X. Furthermore, only 5 percent of the whole group going into farming had any *ad hoc* training in agriculture. It was also observed that 46,5 percent of those boys who went into farming no longer belonged to 'a farm family'.

The parents, through lack of education and capital, had lost their land. It was found too that there was a positive correlation between higher education and the ability to keep their farms and make successful economic progress despite changing conditions. Those who did not succeed became poor Whites.

Occupation followed by boys after leaving School during the 1920's.

Occupation	Percentage
Farming	47,1
Unskilled and semi-skilled labour	11,8
Skilled trades	4,1
Clerical	12,6
Civil service, police and defence	5,6
Professions	3,3
Other occupations	15,5
TOTAL	100,0

Source: Malherbe Vol. II, 1975, 158.

Yet despite this there had been educational growth in the years 1910-1930. The need for vocational guidance was obvious.

> According to Malherbe Vol. II, 1978; 155,
> *"At the time of Union over 100 000 White children of school going age (seven to fifteen years) were not yet in school".*

As more money for education became available there was unprecedented growth in the education system. The State expenditure on education for Whites grew from R3 500 000 in 1910 to R18 000 000 in 1930. The per caput outlay rose from R2,82 per caput spent in 1910 to R9,95 per capita spent in 1930. The expenditure per pupil rose from R20 to R46 from 1910 to 1930. (Malherbe 1977; 136)

The authorities were however faced by the problem of the suitability of the education which was provided at the different

levels. The questions asked were:

1. Why were so many adolescents who had left school unemployed?
2. Why were so many who were employed, found to be unsatisfactory?

Questions such as these had implications for Guidance and Counselling and showed the need for a guidance service, so that pupils would have advice and information concerning vocations.

In keeping with their Protestant tradition, the South African people tended to look to education *as a panacea for all society's ills, including economic deterioration.* This question of the quality of the education received, and its usefulness for vocations, as well as the poor White problem, all required solutions.

In order to qualify boys as farmers, the following steps were taken:

Agriculture was offered as a subject in some high schools. This proved useless as there was a lack of training facilities. Because agriculture was regarded as of national importance, the central government in the 1920's established agricultural schools.

> *"By 1937 there were eight agricultural schools (poorly supported). By 1968 there were sixteen agricultural high schools with 3 000 pupils in the four provinces.*

They had been integrated with the provincial educational system and their numbers increased, as shown.

Agricultural colleges existed already. Elsenburg School was begun near Stellenbosch. This later became incorporated with the Faculty of Agriculture of Stellenbosch University. Cedara Agricultural College was established near Pietermaritzburg in 1906 - other colleges were established in Potchefstroom and at Grootefontein in the Cape. There was one established in Bloemfontein.

White Attitudes to Manual Labour.

In the period 1910-1930, South Africa had hardly any industries, except the railways and the mines. Most of the White mineworkers were immigrants. In 1910 there were only 7 285 South African born White men employed as miners, representing only 27,2 percent of the total White labour force on the mines. The Blacks out-numbered the Whites four to one. They did all the menial and unskilled work. Malherbe states that the poor White, however poor he might be, would not drop to the level of the Black man by doing this type of work. Vocational training, proposed by the Dutch Reformed Church as a measure of combating poor Whitism, e.g. trades like shoemaking, carpentry, smithy work and training girls as domestics were looked upon with disfavour, since originally this too was done by non-Whites. Also the Prisons Department had begun schools of this nature for destitute children and adolescents.

> *"Thus vocational education was born in South Africa under a tremendous handicap. Though the church baptised it and the Prisons Department nursed it, for a time it was begotten in shame".* (Malherbe Vol. II, 1978; 165)

But, according to Malherbe, in 1931 of the boys and girls who left the Government Department's vocational schools having learnt trades, agriculture or housecraft, only
fifty-three percent worked on the job they were trained for;
seventeen percent obtained other jobs; and
thirty percent were unemployed.

These figures proved that there was a dire need for counselling on the choice of occupation.

There were several reasons: prejudice; organized industry gave little recognition to the training given in these schools; they preferred to train their own apprentices.

Results of Carnegie Commission.

Technical education was encouraged. It was different from vocational education and carried no stigma of charity and inferiority. Yet when technical colleges were compared to universities, there was a stigma of inferiority in the minds of parents and students. (Malherbe 1978.) But the necessity for technical training in industry and in commerce was apparent. They were urban in their location and mainly catered for city dwellers. In Natal the Durban Technical College was started by a committee of Durban citizens in 1907. Just as the Witwatersrand University was an off-shoot of the Technical College in Johannesburg, so the Durban section of the Natal University College was an outgrowth of the Engineering Department of the Natal Technical College in Durban. (Malherbe Vol. II, 1978; 168.)

The training of the artisan type of skilled worker was regularized first by the Apprenticeship Act of 1922, which was amended in 1944, 1951, 1959 and in 1963. These Acts provided for a National Apprenticeship Board and for local apprenticeship committees, which concerned themselves with the designation of certain trades and the conditions of apprenticeship, which laid down wages and the amount to be deducted for fees payable to the technical colleges for training.

The following Table shows the growth of Apprenticeship Contracts.

Year	Contracts	Part-time Students
1930	8 406	7 000
1940	11 683	11 078
1950	24 379	21 659

In 1949 the De Villiers Commission was appointed to improve conditions for apprentices in the South African Railways and in the motor industry, in order to prevent "drop-outs". In order to

ameliorate the shortage of trained technical personnel in industry and the Public Service from 1930-1948, recruiting teams were sent to Europe with the result that the number of artisan immigrants grew rapidly up to 1948.

Year	Artisan Immigrants
1946	5 335
1947	16 606
1948	18 113
1949	7 406
1950	6 257

There was a marked decrease in emigration after the National Party came into power in 1948, after World War II. Yet in 1950 there was still a shortage of 13 000 artisans in the building trade.

E.G. Malherbe (1975) notes that the absence of systematic vocational guidance in the primary and secondary schools made

> *"transfer to vocational education from these schools a matter more of accident than design".*

Malherbe states,

> *"that some of the leaders in the teaching profession confessed that they did not even know where these vocational schools were situated or how they should set about getting a boy or girl placed in one of them".* (1978; 212, Vol. II)

This was disastrous for the adolescent of less average ability who remained on in the ordinary high school,

> *"where he got bored with and failed in subjects, which were taught at a pace suited for those aiming at matriculation".* (Malherbe 1978; 212, Vol. II)

Malherbe adds that such a pupil was generally released from school at the age of sixteen, unequipped for life.[5)]

Thus it was clear that there was a need to place the operation of guidance in the schools on a more scientific and organized basis. It can be seen that in the early years there was no place for vocational and educational guidance on the school timetable and that no person was especially trained and appointed for guidance and counselling.

> *"Fortunately in South Africa as in Britain there were teachers, as well as principals, especially in the smaller secondary schools, who got to know their pupils as individual persons and also their home circumstances. It was found that though there were no vocational guidance officers or school psychologists to assist them, such teachers discussed their pupils' futures with their parents in an effective way - such teachers however were exceptions".* (Malherbe Vol. II, 1978; 242)

Summary of the Period 1910-1930.

1. The poor White problem had been revealed. It was seen to be due to the change in the structure of South Africa from a predominantly rural economy to a rapidly developing, industrial economy, e.g. as a result of the development in gold and diamond mines and the example of technological progress from overseas. This uneducated class, landless and unskilled, were rendered unemployable in the world of work.

2. Steps were taken by the Dutch Reformed Church itself and as a result the recommendations of the Carnegie Commission (1929-1932) to introduce vocational and technical training.

3. Vocational training was regarded as employment for non-Whites, e.g. Coloureds and Blacks. The bricklaying, plastering, painting and decorating, engine-cleaning was considered fit only for Black and Coloured men and "overseas workers". Definitely not for the White South African. If not a professional, e.g. a teacher, a doctor,

a lawyer or a Dominee, parents would prefer a less intelligent member of their family to be a transport driver than acquire the skills of the above trades.

4. There was no Guidance and Counselling service in South African schools to re-educate and inform the public as to the value of vocational and technical training. Many teachers were ignorant of the facilities that existed.

5. It can be seen that by the study of the historical facts concerning the development of education, the sociologist of education can understand the underlying causes of prejudice against an occupation or the laws a particular government in power enacts. The sociologist of education can formulate hypotheses and make recommendations of greater practical value in the light of the understanding of the past conditions and the resulting actions of men in power. The value of historic enquiry to sociological research is unquestionable.

6. E.G. Malherbe's tribute to exceptional teachers before the official Guidance and Counselling movement came into being is noted and endorsed by the writer. Those exceptional teachers could be named and praised in a separate evaluatory research project to pay formal tribute to their contribution to education in South Africa.

7. Special mention must be made of the "Farm Schools" developed in the early 1830's to educate the adolescent in rural areas. John Dewey, the eminent educational philosopher was a participant at the educational conference at which these school farms were described by their originators. According to Malherbe (1978; 231),

> *"Hardly ever, John Dewey testified, had he heard of a more effective realization of his cherished educational principles than in those projects launched on the borders of the Kalahari Desert, by a few imaginative and enterprising school principals".*

It can be seen that in the 1930's South African educators were not working and thinking in isolation. John Dewey acknowledged by the British and by his own country-men in America as a leading authority on education, must have been a refreshing contact for South African educators.

Compulsory School Attendance Measures and Free Education.

By 1952 the compulsory leaving age had become sixteen years or the completion of Standard VIII in the Cape, Orange Free State and the Transvaal. In Natal this requirement was not laid down until 1963. It was decided that if education is compulsory it must be free.[6)]

4.9 The Establishment of Early Guidance Services in the Republic of South Africa.

Although not established, the need for Guidance and Counselling was realized by the Carnegie Commission in the 1930-1933 period, during their thorough probe into the poor White problem. The solution to the poor White problem was seen to be the provision of increased facilities for vocational training. In this connection in the early 1930's the Union Education Department began psychological services. According to Malherbe previously,

> *"Psychological services were used in regard to the identification of mentally-backward children".* (Vol. II, 1978; 322)

In 1936 the Transvaal Education Department appointed its first Educational Guidance Officer, Dr. M.J. Prinsloo. Initially he was attached to the Johannesburg Normal College and administered intelligence tests in schools. He was later joined by Dr. N.J. Du Preez, who was responsible for establishing psychological clinics for Child Guidance in Johannesburg and in Pretoria.[7)]

In 1937 the Cape appointed its first Educational

Psychologist, Dr. J. Strassheim from Stellenbosch University. In 1944 he was assisted by Dr. J.A.J. Van Rensburg and work in the field of educational and vocational guidance was begun.

In 1944 the Natal Education Department appointed its first Departmental Psychologist, Dr. C.W. Wright and in 1949 the Orange Free State assigned the work of vocational guidance to one of the school inspectors. (Malherbe 1977; 322)

In a study by P.S. Visser of the Human Sciences Research Council, 1970 *Report No. O-3* the following information concerning *Early Guidance services* is provided:

The early pioneers at first rendered services that were unspecialized in scope. They administered intelligence tests and they gave educational and vocational guidance when considered necessary. With the extension of the service, there came greater specialization. They gave a great deal of attention to mentally retarded children, but not to the needs of normal scholars. The result was that the number of special schools for mentally retarded children grew in all four provinces. By 1966 there were 17 094 such children being taught in 745 special classes in 30 special schools.

As there was an extension upwards of the limits of compulsory education, the variety of abilities and needs of the adolescents who were in secondary classes, claimed attention. Group tests of intelligence were applied widely throughout the schools and revealed a wide spread of intellectual ability amongst pupils at the secondary level.

Aptitude tests and interest questionnaires provided objective information of the fact,

"that many pupils were wasting their own time and the teacher's time in pursuing the prevailing academic course leading to university entrance, when there was

not the slightest chance of their ever achieving that goal. Many of them would leave school at the age of sixteen without being launched on any type of training that would prepare them for whatever work they would be likely to do as wage-earners". (Malherbe Vol. II, 1977; 323)

In the 1960's the situation was fully appreciated; it was commented on by educationists, Government commissions and teachers, yet nothing was done to improve and extend the service given by the existing educational psychologists, counsellors and vocational guidance officers.

The skeleton service that existed was totally inadequate. It was only after the passing of *Act No. 39 of 1967* which stated that,

"education must be provided in accordance with the ability and aptitude of and interest shown by the pupil and the needs of the country" - that it was realized that *"guidance is the cornerstone of differentiated education".* (Malherbe Vol. II, 1977; 323)

The writer will now show how differentiated secondary education evolved and describe the Guidance and Counselling service that resulted in the Republic of South Africa.

4.10 Steps towards Differentiated Secondary Education.

4.10.1. From the 1940's onwards, secondary education came under close scrutiny. Secondary education until then catered for the small minority of academically talented adolescents who had matriculation in mind. In keeping with the thinking in the Western world, there was a demand for restructuring the whole secondary school organization.

The reports of various commissions stressed the need for

more adequate provision of differentiation and several developments resulted. The reports of four of the commissions are given here:

4.10.2. The Nicol Commission of 1939 *investigated the effectiveness of the education system in the Transvaal.* The commission found that in the main, secondary education was designed for university entrance; it did not take account of the majority of pupils who on leaving school, wanted to enter commerce or a trade. The Nicol Commission resulted in the establishment of "Junior High Schools" where three-year secondary courses in technical, commercial or domestic subjects were offered and high schools which offered five year academic courses.

4.10.3. The Wilks Committee in Natal (1946) *reported that there were pupils in the secondary schools* of the province who had neither the aptitude nor the inclination to benefit from the high standard demanded for matriculation, which was the main objective of the schools.

In its report, the committee recommended that four district secondary school courses be provided,
A practical course for early school leavers;
A commercial course for girls;
A pre-vocational course for boys who had a technical career in mind; and
A university admission course.

The Wilks Committee proposed that all four courses be provided in the *same school.* It opposed separate schools on the grounds that they tended to create intellectual snobbery.

4.10.4. The De Villiers Commission of 1948 *was required to examine the state of technical and vocational education throughout the Union of South Africa.* The Commission studied education in all its aspects and recommended a new programme of education, whereby

all pupils would, after primary school, proceed through a separate "decentralized community" - junior high school, where they would receive a general foundation and education of three years' duration. Thereafter they would go to either a senior high school or a vocational high school. The courses in these schools would be for two years' duration. The senior high school would offer an academic course. It was recommended that pupils should be grouped in terms of their ability and achievement in each subject, rather than in set standards.

Although the De Villiers Commission was not adopted, its ideas were noted for the future. It spurred on the idea of differentiated secondary education and even mentioned the value of the *"COUNSELLING OF PUPILS"*.

4.10.5. The Orange Free State published The Report of the Pretorius Commission (1951).

The Orange Free State had proportionate to population, the highest percentage of secondary pupils at school and more secondary schools than any other province. The commission made the following recommendations:
A strong plea for the reform of secondary education.
It maintained that not sufficient opportunity existed for differentiation.
Pupils who had little aptitude for or interest in academic subjects were compelled, *"within the limited range of subjects available for selection to choose mostly academic subjects"* - and *"hence received little preparation for their future careers"*.

In the wake of the above findings the Pretorius Commission opted for a single *comprehensive secondary school*, offering three types of education, i.e. academic, technical and commercial. The first year of high school, Std. VI would be exploratory. Differentiation would begin to operate in Std. VII. The pupil would have a choice of one of four courses: an academic course; a

commercial course; a practical-cum-technical course for boys - the bias would be towards handicrafts, and for girls, homecraft. There would be an additional course with a bias towards agriculture for boys. The main thinking behind this recommendation was the need for a *differentiated content to suit the varying abilities of the adolescent schoolgoing population.*

4.10.6. Comment.

In each of the four provinces, distinct attempts to provide differentiation occurred between 1940 and 1967. The Transvaal's effort to introduce "Junior High Schools" in 1950 was not a success. In the hope of finding a better method, *The Steyn Committee recommended that a commission go overseas, to study trends in differentiation in other countries.* The result was the *Van Wyk Report*, which clearly recommended *"comprehensiveness in education"*. As a result, a three-streamed system of differentiation was introduced.

In 1953 in the Cape Province, a junior secondary course was introduced in an effort to provide for individual differentiation.

In the Orange Free State after 1963, recommendations of the Pretorius Commission were put into practice.

In Natal, almost no provisions were made for differentiation until 1959, when *a practical course* was introduced. This had been intended to serve the needs of the less intelligent pupils. The course was a failure. In 1961 another attempt was made towards better differentiation of the abilities of pupils by providing *two grades: advanced grade and ordinary grade.*

The ordinary grade catered for the less able pupil. There were different examinations for each grade. This attempt at differentiation was regarded by some (parents and teachers) as a

"label" for life. Once having achieved an "O" grade matriculation pass, the pupil could never enter university. There was no guidance and counselling service to assist in estimating ability. No account was taken of the fact that reasons for failure may not have been due to academic incompetence. The Standard VI year became the testing ground for the future of the pupil.

It was at the end of the Standard VI year on the basis of their examination results, that pupils were regarded "as different". This method of selection was by no means foolproof. It could result in the misdirection of manpower, apart from personal upset to the individual pupil.

An anonymous letter in *Mentor*, cited by Dobie (1969) is worthy of mention:

> *"In South Africa, where we need as many able people as possible, the chance that even one "late developer" should be missed, is not worth taking - but after four or five years in an O Grade classroom, a potential late developer has probably been effectively stifled".* (1969; 176)

The writer is in full agreement with Dobie's comment, that streaming, *"seems to reduce the range of individual differences in pupils, rather than provide for and encourage such differences".* (Dobie 1969; 176)

4.11 Differentiation Achieved and the Introduction of a Guidance and Counselling Service.

The major milestone in the history of education in the Republic of South Africa was the passing of Act No. 39 of 1967. (This was followed by the Educational Services Act No. 41 of 1967, and the Advanced Technical Education Act No. 40 of 1967).

4.11.1. The Significance of Act No. 39 of 1967.

The Act made three provisions, which were essential to

progress in education and in keeping with the times.

"Firstly the Act recognized de jure, that differentiation between people must be made in an education system".

If this was not the case there would be a high drop-out rate and apart from the frustration to the individual himself, the manpower potential of the country will be affected.

In keeping with this reasoning, Section II (1) of the Act No. 39 of 1967 laid down that,

"education must be provided for in accordance with the ability and aptitude of and interest shown by the pupil and the needs of the country".

This meant that differentiated education had at last become a reality.

4.11.2. Following logically on the latter, the legislators realized that Guidance and Counselling was the

"cornerstone of differentiated education". (Malherbe 1977)

Section II (1) of the Act No. 39 of 1967 stated also that,

"appropriate guidance shall, with due regard thereto be furnished to pupils".

In order to implement this legislation a commission was appointed to investigate all aspects of Guidance and Counselling. This commission published its report in 1971. *This realization for the need of Guidance and Counselling services in secondary schools in the Republic of South Africa was the second noteworthy provision of the Act.*

4.11.3. The *third provision of importance* was the recognition that no education system can function efficiently unless it can employ a body of *well-trained teachers.* The question of teacher training and all its facets was discussed by the Gericke Commission.

The value of graduate teachers and post-graduate teacher-training was clearly established. Legislation to this end was provided in Section 2 (1), (a), (b), (c), (f), (g), (h) and (i) of the National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967.

Another provision of the Act was that education shall have a broad *national character;* the mother tongue, if either English or Afrikaans shall be the medium of instruction; requirements as to compulsory education and the limits relating to school age shall be uniform; education (including books and stationery) shall be provided free of charge to pupils whose parents reside in the Republic of South Africa*or are South African citizens, in schools managed and controlled by a department of the State (including a provincial administration).

It was specifically stated that the education in schools managed and controlled by a department of State (including a provincial administration),

> *"shall have a Christian character, but that the religious conviction of the parents and the pupils shall be respected in regard to religious instruction and religious ceremonies".*

The above covers the main principles of the Act. The country was at last set for rationalizing all full-time education given to White adolescents up to and including Standard X. How these principles were to be brought into effect can only be understood by examining the administrative structure, provided by the Act, in order to implement the above principles.

4.12 The Administrative Structure provided by Act No. 39 of 1967 - in order to implement the Principles of the Act.

The Minister of Education was given the right to determine National Education Policy after consultation with the National Advisory Council. This involved the co-ordination on a national

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* This applied to White children only.

basis of syllabuses, courses and examination standards and research in the field of education.

The *two main bodies* responsible for working out the detailed implementation of the National Education Policy were:

(a) *The National Education Council.*
(b) *The Committee of Heads of the Education Departments of the four provinces.*

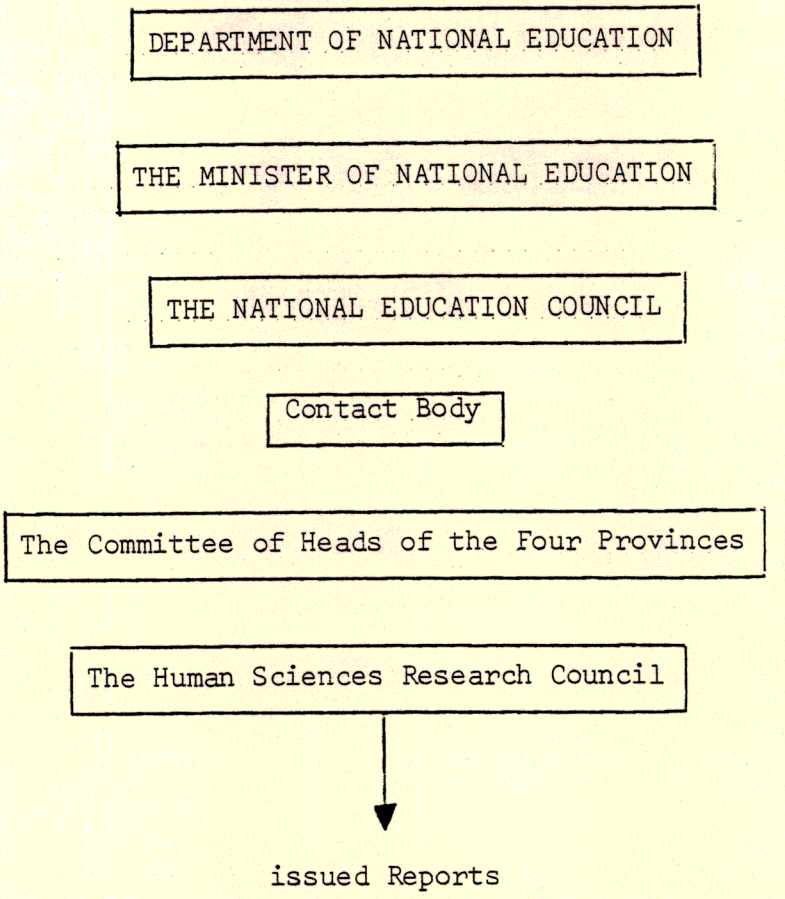
A contact body was established to act as an intermediary between the *latter two bodies.*

The *Human Sciences Research Council* was established to investigate and research problems.

It is necessary for better understanding of the structure provided to administer Act No. 39 of 1967 to examine the individual components mentioned above more fully.

I. The National Education Council. This body was originally established in 1962 to advise the Minister and was then known as the National Advisory Educational Council. It was successively reconstituted in 1967 (Act No. 39) in 1969 (Act No. 73) and again in 1974 (Act No. 92). See Table below.

This council consisted of the Four Heads of the Provincial Education Departments plus the following members appointed by the Minister.
Two University Principals.
Four Lecturers in Education Faculties at Universities.
One Officer from the Human Sciences Research Council.
Two Representatives of the Teachers' Association (one English, one Afrikaans) and one Director of a College of Advanced Technical Education.



1. *The Gericke Report.*

2. *Report of the Committee for Differentieated Education* and Guidance - in connection with a National System of Education —— with reference to School Guidance as an integrated service of system of Education for the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa. (1971)

The importance of this Council was the emphasis laid on *Teacher Training*, particularly at university level.

The function of this Council would be to advise not only the Minister of National Education, but also the universities and the Provincial Administrations.

II. The second body was the Committee of Heads of Education Departments of the Four Provinces and of South West Africa and of National Education.

This committee was the most powerful body in the education system as far as schools were concerned.

In order to facilitate discussion of and research into the introduction of differentiated education, *a contact body* was created to function as an intermediary between the National Education Council and the Committee of Heads of Departments on the other hand.

The Human Sciences Research Council[8] (formerly the National Bureau for Educational and Social Research) rendered valuable assistance to the various committees. Under the auspices of the Human Sciences Research Council a number of valuable reports were issued. The most important of these was *The Report of the Committee for Differentiated Education and Guidance* under the chairmanship of the *Human Sciences Research Council*. The title of this report gives a description of its contents.

Report of the Committee of Differentiated Education and Guidance in connection with the National System of Education at Primary and Secondary School level with reference to School Guidance as an integrated Service of the System of Education for the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa. (1971)

After four years of deliberation by these bodies, the

Minister of National Education on the 12th November, 1971 issued a proclamation as to how *the work of schools* should be re-organized in order to implement the principles of differentiated education and guidance as stated in the 1967 Act.

4.13 The official Year Book of the Republic of South Africa (1974; 724) gives the following details concerning the practical aspects of the implementation of Guidance and Counselling.

In the Transvaal.

The school system was divided into twenty-four areas. Each area had a clinic. Each clinic was staffed by:
a clinical psychologist,
a guidance psychologist,
an orthodidactic psychologist,
an assistant psychologist, and
two speech therapists.

In the Cape Province.

Psychological and guidance clinics were established. Thirty-six inspectors of psychological services were each responsible for a specific area.
The Cape also had guidance teachers, operating from secondary schools. The system was one post for 300 pupils or one for two neighbouring schools with a combined enrolment of not more than 400 pupils.

In Natal.

Natal appointed the following personnel:
a head of psychological and guidance services,
two assistant heads,
eleven school psychologists,
eight speech therapists,
thirty-five remedial teachers, and
various guidance clinics.

Guidance posts were inaugurated for teachers attached to secondary schools. One post was allocated for 300 pupils.

In the Orange Free State.

The following personnel were appointed:
three inspector psychologists,
five guidance clinics staffed by psychometrists, speech therapists and clinical psychologists.
In the Orange Free State there is one post allocated to a guidance teacher at every school and large schools are permitted more than one post for a guidance teacher.

The Function of Guidance Teachers.

1. They are responsible for psychometric work, e.g. testing and the administration of I.Q., Aptitude and Interest Tests.
2. They are responsible also for psychological and vocational guidance in the schools to which they are attached.

Qualifications: The basic qualifications for all the above posts was at least a degree with psychology or guidance psychology as a major.

As has been shown in this dissertation, research into the psychological and sociological aspects of education is ongoing in the United States of America and Great Britain. In keeping with this progress,

> *"The institute of Psychometric Research of the Human Sciences Research Council concerned itself with the drawing up and standardizing of test batteries for testing intelligence, scholastic achievement and personality structure".* (Malherbe Vol. II, 1978; 393)

There is no doubt that the research done by the Committee for Differentiated Education and Guidance in connection with a

National System of education at primary and secondary school level, with reference to school guidance - made a thorough study of Guidance and Counselling systems in other countries, e.g. the United States of America and Great Britain. The Report stated that,

> *"In recent American guidance literature, the terms 'Guidance and Counseling' are used as parallels and also synonomously ... leading authorities in this field stress the fact however, that there are three facets concept of 'guidance/counseling', viz. vocational, educational and personal counseling".* (Chapter 13; 112 of the Report)[9)]

Later in the report it is stated that Guidance and Counselling not a school subject but a service which is confined to those who are of school going age(Chapter 19; 195 of the Report). Later in a discussion on the necessity for a school guidance service at secondary educational level, the aim of the proposed system of secondary education is stated:

> *"The aim of a secondary education system is to provide differentiated education in accordance with the abilities aptitude and interests of pupils, with due observance of the country's manpower needs, with the accent on leading the pupils to moral independence in adulthood. In order to realize this aim, pupils must receive guidance as well as enable them to make vocationally orientated educational choices, and thereafter they must receive such training as will co-ordinate with their post school vocational training. All this must take place without neglecting the moulding of the pupil as a person".*
> (Report 1971, 201; Section 185)

They also list educational guidance, vocational guidance and personal guidance as the main components of the counselling service, but insist that,

"Every person as a being directed towards the future, has a specific South African philosophy of life ... In the formulation of a system of education a specific South African philosophy of life will have to serve as a point of departure, because the White population of the Republic of South Africa has, over the course of three centuries, emerged with a communal aim which may serve as a broad foundation for moulding the young in such a way that they will achieve self-realization and render service to their fellow men, country, nation and their God".

This national characteristic and attitude to life must be of a Christian nature ... education must be viewed on three crucial facets,

"a national facet, a Christian facet and an educational facet".

It is stated clearly however that the government does not take away the right of citizens who think differently but the question of Christian education is absolutely entrenched in the National Education Policy Act No. 39 of 1967, which is 'the ground' of education in the Republic of South Africa.

4.14 Comment.

While the definitions and practical aspects of Guidance and Counselling are based on psychological and sociological theory, the basic philosophy underlying the service is that of Christian National Education.

From the vantage ground of historical perspective this can be understood for the following reasons.

Ab origo the trekkers relied on their faith in the teachings of the Bible and their belief in God "for deliverance from all evil".

The odds were many for the pioneers, e.g. difficult geographic terrain, wild animals, hostile Bantu tribes and disease were all the components of a nomadic existence.

On establishing settled communities this religious factor dominated their actions and was their basic philosophy of living.

Their fight for the recognition of Afrikaans also increased their national fervour. From the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910, the Afrikaner-Nationalist section of the population wanted eventual independence from Britain.

In 1961 the Republic of South Africa was established by the dominant Party in power, which was the National Party. In Act 39 of 1967 - The Education Act for the Republic - the idea of perpetuating the belief in their own religious philosophy was strong enough to ensure its continuance for posterity, by writing this into the Act - *de jure*.

> *"The Guidance service must be based on the same view of humanity and outlook on life as that of the education system and that these views should not be of the type that see man simply as a natural being, thereby reducing him to a mere bio-physical entity. Man must be seen as a person in totality, in which case he is recognized as a physical, psychical being and as a spiritual entity".*
> (Report of the Committee for Differentiation, Education and Guidance 1971; 197)

While there is religious freedom and no compulsion to comply with the philosophy of Christian National Education, it is written into the Act in the hope that this religious factor will be transmitted to future generations of Afrikaners, e.g. in their Youth Preparedness Programmes.

Religious implications of this kind do not exist in the United States of America, where in fact, the law forbids religious

instruction in State schools in respect of the innumerable "religious divisions" that exist in the United States of America. In Great Britain religious principles are not in any way a part of the Guidance and Counselling service, despite the importance with which religion is regarded in England.

Traditionally South African favoured the public school, which is attended by over ninety percent of the nation's children. According to Malherbe,

> *"Traditionally the Dutch Reformed Church's attitude to education was not of a denominational or proselytizing character. It was to develop the State school which catered for children of all denominations irrespective of whether they were English or Afrikaans-speaking. For this disinterested service to the cause of public education the Dutch Reformed Church Ministers received frequent tributes from superintendents and administrators of education in the past".* (Malherbe Vol. II, 1978; 45)

Malherbe's research has shown that with the growth of the influence of the Broederbond the situation changed.

> *"Just as Calvinism sought in Geneva to review society, by penetrating life at every depth, public or private, so the Dutch Reformed Church strove hard to make its own brand of Calvinism - C.N.E. felt deep into the life of the Afrikaner people".* (Rene De Villiers cited by Malherbe Vol. II, 1977; 372)

The above account is merely an attempt at understanding the development of Christian National Education to its present state of dominance in the Education Act No. 39 of 1967 and its part in the philosophy of the Guidance and Counselling service in the Republic of South Africa.

4.15 Conclusion.

It can be seen therefore that while the practical aspects of the Guidance and Counselling service are based on psychological and sociological principles of international standards, theoretically the philosophy of Christian National Education permeates deep into the Guidance and Counselling service.

However, in practice there are variations in its implementation by the four provinces of the legislated national guidance service for White schools. As the foregoing account illustrated.

> *"The Transvaal and Orange Free State have long been the home of Christian National thinking, and their school guidance programmes follow national policy to the letter".* (Dovey 1980; 3)

This historical account has shown that Natal and the Cape Province have had a different guidance tradition to that of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

The latest official syllabus for Guidance for practice in 1981 issued by the Natal Education Department: Psychological and Guidance Service, gives the teacher-counsellor freedom to determine their own guidance programmes. The syllabus states clearly that,

> *"It must, however, be understood that an effective guidance programme is one that will take into account the unique needs and resources of the particular school in which it operates. When planning a programme, such individualisation should be kept in mind and allowances made for relative emphasis to be placed where the needs and resources indicate".*

This statement is in no way dogmatic and the suggestions contained in the syllabus have been made after a great deal of research into

Guidance and Counselling in other parts of contemporary Western society. Details of the Guidance and Counselling service as it is in 1980 in the Republic of South Africa will be given in Part II of this dissertation, in which the empirical research done by the writer is described.

It is hoped that the foregoing account of Guidance and Counselling from the perspective of history in the United States of America and Great Britain (in Chapter Three) and in the Republic of South Africa (in this chapter) has led to a deeper understanding of the service in the Western world and particularly in the Republic of South Africa. It is the writer's hope that as compulsory education is extended to the non-White people of the Republic of South Africa, the Guidance and Counselling service will be included in the education system for all adolescents in the Republic of South Africa.

NOTES.

1) Change is ongoing in the Republic of South Africa. It is hoped that with the introduction of compulsory education for all races, Guidance and Counselling will become a norm in all schools in the Republic of South Africa.

2) South African schools are segregated by legislation according to race and language: there are White Afrikaans-speaking schools; White English-speaking schools. There are also some White schools which both English and Afrikaans-speaking pupils attend. There are also Black schools,'Coloured' (mixed race) schools and Indian schools. (Dovey 1980; 2) In this dissertation only White education is dealt with since Guidance and Counselling at present only applies to White schools. At present, however, the government is investigating change in the educational system for the non-White population. The writer firmly believes that new legislation will be provided for compulsory education with a guidance and counselling system which has benefited by the experience gained in the initial system.

3) Source: A.L. Behr (1978; 8).

4) Z.A.R. = De Zuid-Afrikaansche Republiek.

5) The Carnegie Commission of 1932 fully described this situation in *Education and the Poor White, Vol. III of the Carnegie Commission Report 1932, Chapter V: Retardation, Failure and Poverty.*

6) Free *primary education* was introduced in the *Transvaal* - 1912:
Free *secondary* education was introduced ,including books - 1914.
Natal primary education was free in 1918.
Natal *secondary* education was free from 1942.
From 1963 books were issued free in Natal to Standard VIII.
In the Cape education was made free to Standard VI - 1920.
In the Orange Free State primary education was free from 1903.

7) In Britain Cyril Burt began Child Guidance Clinics 1913.

8) *The Human Sciences Research Council* was *established on 31st March 1969* in terms of *Act No. 23 of 1969.* This Council falls under the Ministry of National Education, but is outside the Public Service; its functions being broadly as follows:
   (1) to undertake research in the field of the human sciences, which should be undertaken in the interests of the country, and the manner in which research could be promoted;
   (2) to advise the government on the utilization of the results of research for the benefits of the country.

   The council consists of the following institutes in order to

realize the above factors:
Institute of Manpower Research.
Institute of Sociological Research.
Institute of Psychomatic Research.
Institute of Educational and Stabilised Research.
In addition there is a Department of Financing Research, and Department for Administrative.

Note: The equivalent body for Natural Sciences = The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research and the Atomic Energy Board.

9) Report refers to the report for differentiated education and guidance by the Human Sciences Research Council (1971).

CHAPTER FIVE.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL. THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE INSTITUTIONS OF THE FAMILY AND EDUCATION.

John M. Raynor in his paper entitled *The School Counsellor* in a publication entitled *Linking Home and School* maintains that research confirms the common sense view that

> *"In making a decision about the kind of work an adolescent decides to do, the home, the school and the peer group are the main influences".*

He is of opinion that a brief review of some research into the first two, i.e. the home and the school is relevant.

> *"to the role of the School Counsellor in the link between home and school".* (Raynor 1967; 213)

In concurrence with the view concerning the relevance of the relationship between home and school, to choice of work, the writer suggests that it also extends to attainment and other factors. The writer will consider in depth, the reasons (from the Guidance and Counselling perspective) for the importance of home and school to the adolescent. In order to gain a deeper understanding of these concepts it is necessary to examine them from the perspective of the sociology of education.

One focus in contemporary research in the field of the sociology of education aims at a greater understanding of education and society. Home and school are commonplace terms in everyday life. But within a sociological framework they are the outward symbols of two major institutions in society, namely education and the family.

5.1. Concerning Education.

> *"Education is the organized part of the process through which each successive generation learns the accumulated knowledge of a society".* (Shipman 1968; 3)

It is clear from contemporary debate, especially represented in the work of Young (1971), Bernstein (1971), Esland (1970), Keddie (1971), Pierre Bordieu (1971) and Jenks (1970), that a large number of questions are being asked which are especially concerned *"with the genesis and transmission of knowledge"* (Davies 1973; 317), subjects to which previously sociologists had given little thought. Young is of opinion that sociologists in Britain and in the United States of America

> *"... have hardly considered the content of education either in terms of how the education system might influence publicly available meanings (the expressive and literary arts, the sciences, fashions, etc.) or with how contemporary definitions of culture have consequences for the organization of knowledge in the school system".* (Young 1971; 10)

These questions had been considered by non-sociologists. But from 1971, according to Davies (1974), sociology has been

> *"... studying the structuring of curricula ... and knowledge boundaries between specific institutions; ..."* (1974; 318)

5.1.1. According to Davies, these questions can be posed,

> *"so that issues of socialization and interaction can be raised in localized situations in such a way that they contribute to the elaboration of an entire body of theory".* (Davies 1974; 319)

5.1.2. This means that at the present time sociologists of education are attempting a sociological analysis of *knowledge* itself at a general societal level. Previously such an analysis had been concerned only with ideological aspects of education.

(Mannheim, Marx and Weber are the classic examples.) It had also been concerned with the relationship *"between structural changes and the overriding cultures"* (Davies 1974; 320). It had taken note of the educational ideologies, values and institutional structure of society. The authors included Matthew Arnold, Durkheim, Talcott Parsons, Northrop-Frye, Dewey and many others. Now the sociologists are theorizing and making suggestions about the heart of education, the context of knowledge itself. The institution of education was its organisations (for the purpose of this study secondary schools) through which to transmit knowledge to the adolescent population.

5.2 The Family - Primary Socialization.

The second institution on which attention is focussed in this chapter is the *Family*, represented in this discussion by the general non-sociological term *Home*. The individual nuclear family is a universal social phenomenon. This can be accounted for by the indispensable functions it performs and the difficulty of ensuring the performance of these functions by any other social group. This is the view of Bottomore (1962) and Murdock (1949).

5.2.1. Lowie 1920 cited by Bottomore (1962) listed few functions fundamental to human social life - these are found in the nuclear family. They are the sexual, the economic, the reproductive, and the educational functions. Some authors distinguish between the social and psychological functions of the nuclear family.

5.2.2. Kingsley Davis (1964) distinguishes few major social functions of the nuclear family: reproduction, maintenance of immature children, placement and socialization. By "placement" he means allocation to a position in the occupational system and this refers more to a rigidly stratified society.[1)] The psychological functions refer to the need for affection and security both for parents and for children.

5.2.3. Human young remain immature for a period which is long in relation to the span of human life; during this time the family must be maintained and socialized. The family socializes the child, but it does not originate the values which it imparts: these emanate from religion, nation or social class.

> *"Thus the specific character of the nuclear family in any society is determined by other institutions".* (Bottomore 1962; 175)

> *"The family is the fundamental instrumental foundation of the larger social structure".* (Goode 1965; 4)

This is because all other institutions depend on its contributions. Moreover the role behaviour that is learned within the family becomes the model or prototype for role behaviour required in other segments of society. The content of the socialization process is the cultural tradition of the society. Goode maintains that

> *"by passing them on to the next generation the family acts as a conduit or transmission belt by which the culture is kept alive".* (*ibid* 1965; 4)

5.2.4. The family has a dual function. It serves its members and society at one and the same time. The ideal situation would probably be for the parents of the nuclear family to fulfill the family's functions. Socialization, however, is an exception because as Berger and Luckmann(1971) point out there are two categories of socialization, namely primary and secondary socialization. Primary socialization involves more than purely cognitive learning. It takes place under circumstances that are highly charged emotionally. The child identifies with significant others. Berger, following Mead's[2)] logic states that

> *"... internalization occurs only as identification occurs".* (1971; 152)

It is when the child takes on the significant others' roles and internalizes them and makes them his own, that he can identify

himself and can

"acquire a subjective coherent and plausible identity".
(Berger and Luckmann 1971; 153)

5.2.5. The writer is in agreement with Berger's remark that the details of this dialectic are of great importance for social psychology, but it would exceed our present purpose if the writer were to follow up its implications for social psychological theory in detail. Reference will only be made to a few writers in this field.

5.2.6. Suffice to state that primary socialization creates in the child's consciousness a progressive abstraction from the roles and attitudes of specific others (e.g. those in the home environment), and attitudes in general.

5.2.6.1. This means that in primary socialization the individual's first world is constructed. Stock knowledge and the culture of the family is transmitted to the child. Contemporary Western civilization tends to regard the child as naturally 'innocent' and 'sweet'; other societies consider them according to Berger and Luckmann,

"By nature sinful and unclean ... Different from adults only in terms of their strength and understanding". (1971; 156)

The point the writer wishes to stress is that primary socialization, occurring as it does in the home, makes an indelible impression on the child's mind. The deep ties of love and high regard the child develops for his parents (in some cases tinged with fear) are of such consequence, that in the second stage of socialization which occurs at school, the child's home environment affects his daily activities and ability to learn and pay attention to what is being taught.

"The reality internalized in primary socialization is maintained in consciousness". (Berger and Luckmann 1971; 157)

5.2.6.2. A brief examination of the psychological interpretation of primary socialization follows. Jones and Gerard in their work, *Foundations of Social Psychology* describe,

> *"The internalization by individuals of values, beliefs, and ways of perceiving the world that are shared by the world".* (1967; 718)

Basically from the psychological point of view, socialization relates to conditioning. Without question the average parent plays an active role in establishing the conditions for learning and value acquisition, which makes the child more susceptible to control by others.

> *"The increase in this susceptibility clearly opens him to the shaping influence of adult teachers and friends, all of whom represent and transmit the values of culture".* (Jones and Gerard 1967; 118)

5.2.6.3. It is widely believed that the basic component of an individual's personality are formed in the early years of family life. Lawrence and Festinger (1962) have contended that not only must the socialized individual learn to channel his preferences towards certain culturally appropriate activities and goals; he must also inhibit responses that might disrupt and threaten the group. Jones and Gerard are of opinion that,

> *"Once again internalization is involved: the individual must move from a condition of responsiveness to external rewards and punishments to a condition of internal control over his impulses".* (1967; 118)

5.2.6.4. These authors believe that one aspect of early socialization undoubtedly involves the capacity to symbolize future rewards and punishments, so that they will be taken into account when the individual is tempted to transgress in order to achieve immediate gratification. Studies have shown how small immediate rewards rather than large delayed rewards were related to,

"delinquency, cheating and certain family conditions conducive to the development of a lack of trust in the promises of others". (*ibid* 1969; 119)

5.2.6.5. Sigmund Freud was convinced of the decisive importance of early experience in the formation of lasting patterns of motivation. One of Freud's main assumptions was that society,

"through its adult agents of socialization, exerted a repressive influence on the normal expression of primitive sexual and aggressive urges ... (he described) *the oral, the anal, the genital sexuality and viewed each as a way-station towards mature heterosexuality".* (*ibid* 1969; 86)

This shows the significance of early socialization for the child.

5.2.6.6. Child socialization is also tied to identification; the parent presents many mannerisms and behaviour patterns that are adopted by the child. These include adult values, which the child assimilates. This also extends to behaviour. In homes where the giving of love is contingent with good behaviour, not conforming leads to the capacity to feel guilty. In addition to identification with a loved one (parent) the child may tend to identify with an aggressor. This scant account from the psychological literature serves to indicate the importance of the period of socialization to the psychological development of the young child and its affect on his future attitudes to life. An understanding of the above is of undoubted significance to the understanding of the importance of his home environment to the individual.

5.2.7. Cultural Transmission in the Family is the writer's next consideration. Before pursuing Berger and Luckmann's idea of secondary socialization and how this occurs in the biography of the individual, the writer will consider the genetic aspect of the individual in the family.

5.2.7.1. An understanding of biological facts is basic to the understanding by teachers and counsellors of the indissoluble tie between the adolescent and his home environment.

Kingsley Davis (1964) in his book *Human Society* asserts that

> *"Any given individual is part of the two distinct modes of cultural transmission, one hereditary and the other social".* (1964; 196)

5.2.7.2. The first operates through the mechanism of genes, chromosomes and human reproduction. It relates to the general level of reality "designated as biological", and is studied by a branch of biological science called Genetics. The second mode operates through the mechanism of habituation, learning and symbolic communication; it relates to the general level of reality designated as socio-cultural. Davis maintains that the complexity extends further:

> *"Not only is the individual a product of these two dynamic processes of transmission but he is also a product of several kinds of environment".* (1964; 198)

Davis explains that "traits" are transmitted from parent to child in two different ways: genetic transmission and communicative transmission. He is of opinion that the heart of socialization is the emergence of the gradual development of self or ego. Davis (1964), like Berger and Luckmann (1971), maintains,

> *"It is in terms of the self that personality takes shape and that mind comes to function".* (1964; 108)

5.2.7.3. The self develops out of the child's communicative contact with others. It arises in the inter-play of social experience. The author of the idea of self was George Herbert Mead (1932). Herbert Blumer in an article entitled, *Sociological Implications of the Thoughts of George Herbert Mead* wrote that,

> *"Mead's picture of the human being as an actor differs radically from the conception of man that dominates current psychological and social science".* (1966; 13)

Later, Blumer notes that

> *"He* (Mead) *saw the human being as an organism having a self. The possession of a self converts the human being into a special kind of actor, transforms his relation to the world and gives his action a unique character".* (American Journal of Sociology 1965; 6 : 1971; 535-544)

It is not possible to give anything but a brief reference to Mead's highly illuminating analysis of social interaction. Mead saw the self as a process, not a structure. From the point of view of this discussion, the significance of Mead's scheme of thought is that

> *"Socialization shifts its character from being an effective internalization of norms and values to a cultivated capacity to take the roles of others effectively".* (Blumer 1966; 17)

Davis (1964) confirms this by commenting on Mead's question,

> *"How can an individual get outside of himself in such a way as to become an object to himself?"*

Davis agrees with Mead that he can do this only through others; by adopting towards himself the attitudes that others take towards him, he comes to treat himself as an object as well as a subject.

In order to view this from a practical point of view the writer refers to Davis' research when he states,

> *"It is astonishing how early in life the infant learns to take the role of the other. By the age of two it plays at being mother, baby or sister. In doing so it views the situation from the stand-point of the person in question and acts accordingly".* (Davis 1964; 210)

Such a child has already internalized the attitudes of others. As the child develops he increasingly takes account of the attitudes of others towards himself. He becomes less egocentric. He learns to communicate and identify with others and to co-operate in co-operative enterprizes. He is increasingly controlled by what is right and wrong, proper and improper. He develops a conscience that reflects not only the opinions of those immediately around him, but also the attitudes of the generalized other, the moral voice of the school and the community as a whole.

This process of moulding is called *socialization.*

> *"Without it the society could not perpetuate itself beyond a single generation, and culture could not exist".* (Davis 1964

5.2.7.4. It has been seen that the first task of socialization comes from parents. This is what Berger and Luckmann (1971) refer to as *Primary Socialization.* Davis comments that it is convenient, though not necessary to have the persons responsible for reproducing and maintaining children, to also be responsible for socializing them.[3] Ideally, in Western society they are responsible for early socialization or informal education of the child.[4] This is an established norm.

5.3 The School and Secondary Socialization.

The term 'secondary socialization' used by Berger and Luckmann (1971) begins operating when children go to school. Schools are necessary because a complex changing society cannot transmit its cultural heritage simply on the basis of informal and amateurish socialization in the family. Nor can it fit persons into its complex and highly specialized statuses simply on the basis of sex, age and kinship. According to Kingsley Davis (1964) this can occur in a

> *"small stable society, which utilizes ascribed status and has a simple form of socialization".*

In such a society, training in the universal features is accomplished in the day-to-day association with adults. Training for specialized statuses is accomplished through informal instruction given by persons already in those statuses, often members of the family. The culture changes so slowly that the entire older generation forms a suitable agency for socializing the young.

5.3.1. But in a modern complex society, parental training becomes less and less adequate, until reliance must finally be placed on socialization outside the family.

> *"This leads to the appearance of schools, separate agencies within the society to carry out the function of education. The schools have professional teachers, a physical plant, a large investment in equipment and an aggregation of pupils. They can perform the complex task of education in a way that parents cannot".*
> (Davis 1964; 218)

5.3.2. Schools like the parents, are in an authoritative position with reference to the child. They have many advantages to offer the child. They have a professional interest in education. They have greater resources and they can be more flexible in the kind of training they give and the newness of the knowledge they transmit.

> *"They are organized not only for the transmission of existing knowledge but also for the discovery of new knowledge. They instil scientific discovery and advancement and hence change, as ideals".* (Davis 1964; 219)

5.3.3. Another justification for schools being responsible for secondary socialization is the fact that having professional teachers, with a high degree of specialization in specific fields, improves the effectiveness of their instruction. It is essential for pupils in Western society to be exposed to such opportunities, in order to receive adequate instruction in the new knowledge which is

available, and is required of them for their future careers.

> *"Thus the segregation of the educational function in a separate agency the school, is necessary in order to adapt the process of socialization to the needs of a society in which the achievement rather than the ascription of status is emphasized and in which complexity and change are paramount".* (Davis 1964; 220)[5)]

5.3.4. Comment.

It can therefore be seen that both these institutions, Education and the Family, through the medium of school and home, are responsible for the socialization of the young. It is self-evident that for the good of the recipient of this dual socialization process, it is necessary that the home and the school take cognisance of each other.

5.3.5. Summary.

The writer has shown that two everyday concepts, school and home stem from the institutions of Education and the Family. In the case of the latter, reference was made to the psychological aspect of socialization and the biological basis was explained. The writer has also indicated that both these institutions are responsible for the process of socialization.

> *"This cultural transmission is necessary so that people can fit into the existing patterns of life and associate with others in a predictable efficient and humane way".* (Shipman 1968; 3)

Socialization is therefore necessary for the perpetuation of the culture of society. The writer will now, albeit briefly, explain the two types of sociological theory which account for socialization itself. These are known as the value-consensus and conflict theories. This explanation will be supported by the views of Durkheim, Talcott Parsons, Dewey, Bowles and Waller whose attitudes

represent these respective theories.

5.4 Sociological Theory explains Socialization.

5.4.1. Introduction.

Scholars in the sociology of education use two conceptual paradigms in an attempt to illustrate certain aspects of reality. These paradigms are most commonly referred to as the consensus and conflict theories. Historically the consensus approach has been dominant until the end of the 1950's and early 1960's, not only in the sociology of education but in virtually all other areas of sociology. Many sociologists use elements of both theoretical perspectives in their research and offer alternative interpretations of the forces which bind societies together. At present Neo-Marxism is dominant in the United Kingdom and Europe; whereas the phenomenological perspective is current in the United States of America.

5.4.2. Value-consensus theorists stress that the various parts of society, however they are defined, are integrated with each other. A change which occurs in one part of society will affect all the others. But in general they emphasize the ways in which the various elements of the social structure work together to maintain the overall social system, e.g. Home and School, representing the institutions of Family and Education.

No society is completely static and consensus theorists recognize that at least some social change is inevitable. Events may occur outside a particular society that impinge upon it and force it to change in response. Consensus theorists stress the forces that keep society relatively stable rather than those that press for radical and abrupt change. Consensus theorists point to the persistence of such basic institutions as the family, and to similarities in the values and behaviour of various generations as evidence of how slowly societies actually change. They point out

that in any society, modern or folk, large or small, there is a shared set of abstract and complex assumptions about the world, which make social life possible.

> *"This consensus is achieved through socialization and in modern societies the function of socialization is primarily performed by the family and the schools".*
> (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 5)

5.4.3. Durkheim is a classical example of a consensus theorist. He was interested in the fundamental question of how societies are held together. Durkheim believed that complex societies are held together by the mutual interdependence of their members. Individuals cannot and do not meet all their needs by themselves. Instead, individuals specialize. There is an intricate division of labour, such that each individual produces some portion of the goods or services required by the other members of society, and exchanges them for goods and services he needs but does not produce. In an advanced technological society such as our own, such exchanges are effected through a system involving labour, wages, markets, industrial enterprises and so on. The complexity of our division of labour makes us all mutually interdependent and according to Durkheim contributes to social stability. (*The Division of Labour in Society*, translated by George Simpson.)

5.4.3.1. According to Durkheim we are all born into society as asocial beings. Obviously, we do not know society's language, skills or customs, and we must learn these to survive, both as individuals and as a group. We must develop a sense of commitment to society and an internalization of its most central values and ideas. We must change from being egoists responding to our self-centred desires, into moral citizens, responding in terms of our duty to the State and our loyalty to something greater than ourselves.

5.4.3.2. Students of Durkheim agree that while Durkheim did not emphasize diversity, he did not ignore it. He recognized that the very division of labour in society requires some degree of

differentiation of values and ideas.

> *"Different occupations require different aptitudes, practices and modes of viewing the world". (ibid)*

5.4.3.3. But Durkheim stressed that there must be underlying consensus regarding the central values and beliefs of society or it could not survive. Durkheim was of opinion that the method of transforming each new generation of asocial infants into responsible adults was through moral education. He stated this in a publication entitled, *Moral Education*. Durkheim's answer as to how society was to accomplish this, was that each society must accomplish it in ways that are appropriate to the values and beliefs it needs to instil. In some societies the family (especially the extended family) might play an important role. Durkheim argued that in the decades immediately preceding his writings, the Catholic church performed this vital function in his own society, France. With increasing industrialization, urbanization and secularization, however, the values and beliefs taught by the church and the manner in which it taught them, no longer represented the central values and beliefs of French society and could no longer be the basis of its moral order. Some other mechanism for moral education had to be found, one more attuned to the needs of a modern state; for Durkheim that mechanism was the schools.

> *"The schools could transform us. They could help us overcome our initial egoism and teach us discipline and self-control. They could encourage us to adopt the fundamental principles of our society as our own".* (Durkheim cited by Parelius 1978; 7)

5.4.3.4. The writer is in agreement with Parelius and Parelius that one can see from Durkheim's perspective that the task of the school is critical to society's survival. In his work *Education and Sociology* (1956)[6] Durkheim states that educational institutions must be closely guarded. The State, whose interest in survival the educational institutions serve, must outline the basic principles to be taught there. It must carefully supervise the schools to

ensure that these principles are taught.

> *"It must see to it that no where are children left ignorant of them ... that everywhere* (they) *should be spoken of with the respect which is due them".* (*ibid*; 8)

Moral education, according to Durkheim, must be accomplished by the teacher who is a representative of the State.

5.4.3.5. Comment.

This is not a critical analysis of Durkheim's theory. Its point of relevance to this study is that according to Durkheim the primary function of education is to socialize new generations to overcome their egoism, and become productive members of society. He showed that education contributes to the maintenance of the social system. Durkheim also recognised that diversity is necessary, because different occupational sub-groups require different values and beliefs. Children destined for these different groups need to have their own unique educational experiences. Nevertheless some common educational core must remain. Consequently education is more uniform for young children when the common principles are being taught than for older ones.

Parelius and Parelius (1978) and Olive Banks (1969) are among many sociologists who criticize Durkheim's theoretical system.

Parelius and Parelius (1971) maintain that he spent little or no time dealing with possible conflicts between different groups, e.g. Who decides which values should be taught? Are the interests of the State ever in conflict with the interest of the students? Through what mechanisms is it decided which children are destined for different occupations and therefore deserving of different types of education? Are teachers really the agents of the State or do they represent the families of those they teach?

These and many other important questions Durkheim does not answer within his theoretical framework, e.g. he does not take sufficient account of the class struggle.

Olive Banks offers the following criticism of Durkheim's theory:

> *"For Durkheim then, education is a means of motivating individuals to behave in ways appropriate to maintain the society in a state of equilibrium. The Functionalist outlook discounts the fact that industrialized societies are dominated by social change and "consensus" and integration can only be loosely conceived in regard to them".* (1969; 12)

The same kind of criticism of Durkheim has been offered by Merton, Coser and others. But Bottomore's appraisal of why Durkheim is highly regarded despite his critics, is of interest here.

> *"Functionalism as a theory in the sense which Durkheim and Radcliffe Brown gave it, has been largely abandoned and it is now increasingly justified as a useful approach or method in the study of society".* (Bottomore 1962; 40)

It is Durkheim's logic and reasoning that appeals to the writer; his method of concluding that the task of education is *"the methodical socialization of the young generation".* The writer does not claim to be in accord with his entire functional theory, which would not be flexible enough for the non-directive counselling approach as advocated by Rogers. From the point of view of this study, his confirmation as Coser remarks *"that the imperative of socialization is a central corollary of culture"*, (1969; 689) is important. Durkheim has firmly given a theoretical foundation and shown that the school and the home are the vehicles designated "to carry" the culture on, for posterity. This is essential if society is to progress and indeed be perpetuated. Blacks in South Africa believe progress for them means a changed

school system.

5.5 The View of Talcott Parsons. A Contemporary Consensus Theorist.

In seeking a theoretical framework for the analysis and explanation of the inter-relationship required by 'the School' with 'the Home" if pupils are to attain their full potential, the writer will briefly consider the view of Talcott Parsons. He is regarded by many, e.g. Ashley, Cohen and Slatter (1969), Banks (1969) and Parelius and Parelius (1971) as an eminent contemporary theorist of the consensus school. Parsons also recognized the socialization function of the school. For Parsons,

> *"Human action can be classified into four sub-systems which together form a human action system".* (Ashley, Cohen and Slatter 1969; 33)

All human behaviour involves action by some biological being. There is therefore:

1. The biological system. The organic individual develops a personality which interacts with other persons in the socio-cultural environment in which it exists;
2. The personality system which in interaction with others constitutes
3. The social system; and
4. The cultural system.

5.5.1. This process of interaction leads to the social system. It is the social system and the cultural system that concerns this dissertation. It is only possible to explain briefly the part of Parsons' theory applicable to education. Parsons in his discussion of the social system uses two more analytical concepts when looking at how the system functions. These are the *means* of action on the one hand, and the *ends* to which the action is orientated on the other. People interacting are always doing something towards goals or ends within a certain situation. This

situation consists of aspects over which they may have no control, which are called the conditions and other aspects which they do control, which are the means they use.

5.5.2. Therefore, if we analyse a system using these four aspects we arrive at the following model.

	Instrumental (Means)	Consummatory (Ends)
EXTERNAL	Adaptive Function A	Goal Attainment Function G
INTERNAL	Pattern-Maintenance and Tension-Management Function L	Integrative Function I

(The Social System, cited by Ashley, Cohen and Slatter 1969; 33.)

NOTE: 1. Instrumental = Means.
Consummatory = Ends

2. Each cell = one of the major sub-systems of the total social system.

3. These component parts are inter-related and inter-dependent; changes in one part will affect other parts.

In cell 'L' Parsons would include the part of the social system which is predominantly concerned with pattern maintenance and control. This would include activities which are mainly cultural, such as those found in the following groups:

> *"Churches, kinship and artistic, research institutes, universities and schools. In fact all activities which are primarily educational. Thus the process of socialization and learning in general would be the major function of this functional sub-system".*
> (Ashley, Cohen and Slatter 1969; 34)

Parsons' development of the social system outlined above is a structural-functional approach to society. In his book *The Structure of Social Action*, Parsons tried to show that his work is the logical development of such writers as Durkheim, Pareto and Weber.[7)]

5.5.3. Parelius and Parelius (1978) maintain that *according to Parsons*, one of the first socialization tasks of the school in Western society is to teach children that they will be evaluated on the basis of achievement, so that students too can share in this basic consensus. Parsons maintains that when children arrive at school, they have not necessarily learned that achieved rather than ascribed characteristics are the proper bases for most societal rewards. In their own families each child is valued as an individual and in theory, loved regardless of how well he or she compares to other children. Although the teacher is somewhat of a mother surrogate, in the early school years, she or he is more objective about the child. The teacher in principle should remain neutral or uninvolved emotionally,[8)] and interact with children only in terms of their respective roles as teacher and pupils. Pupils soon learn that they all have an equal chance of doing well and only differences in ability and motivation explain differences in their achievement.[9)] (The latter is Parsons' view.)

Parsons stresses the functional interdependence of educational and other societal institutions. He believes that two of the basic functions of education are socialization and selection. Through these two processes, the schools provide society with individuals well prepared for the roles they will fulfill. Allocation to these roles is on the basis of achievement and merit. He is of opinion that schools promote value consensus and depend upon it for smooth operation.

5.5.4. *Critics of Parsons* maintain that his theory does not account for the considerable amount of controversy which surrounds educational goals and methods in contemporary society. He does not

deal with the abundant accumulation of empirical data, which suggests that ascription and not only achievement elects how the educational system will allocate any particular individual. He omits a discussion on violence and hostility that can occur in schools in his analysis of the internal consensus of the classroom. Critics of Parsons (and of value-consensus theorists) also argue that his views support the status quo and are not critical of capitalist society. Bottomore states:

> *"the work of Talcott Parsons ... has established not a theoretical system, but an elaborate conceptual framework intended to make possible the formulation of hypothesis and theories".* (1962; 40)

5.5.5. Olive Banks maintains that educationalists like John Dewey held contrasting viewpoints to those of Durkheim and Parsons. John Dewey saw the educational system as a direct agency of social change. In fact he looked to the schools to reform society. Olive Banks is of opinion that there is no evidence for any simple theory of technological determination. Educational institutions are shaped by many aspects of the social system. She gives as an example, the ideological barriers to the development of technical education in Britain (1968; 13). In South Africa Blacks often see the schools as trying to produce Blacks who are fitted for Apartheid, and as a result, the education system in South Africa is one of the contemporary battlegrounds. However, a commission appointed by the Government is seeking ways and means to improve the status quo in the near future.

It can be seen from the above that consensus theorists focus on

> *"functional integration, core values and social stability".* (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 11)

5.6 Conflict Theories as Related to Education.

> The key themes of the conflict theorists are *"conflict, change and coercion"*. (Parelius and Parelius 1978; 12)

The conflict theorists emphasize that conflict inherent in society, leads to conflict between different classes and that this conflict is both at group and institutional levels. They believe that the goals and programmes of one class are at odds with the goals and programmes of another, e.g. Karl Marx believed that the interests of those in power are sharply incompatible with the interests of those who are subordinate. According to Levitas (1974; 9) they believed *"that the material requirements of life determine ideas"* conflict results as each group struggles for dominance. This conflict can pervade the education system. Parelius and Parelius (1978) maintain that change results from the continuous power struggle between groups. A period of temporary social stability and order is obtained by the dominant group coercing the less powerful into some degree of conformity. Resistance results in social upheaval. Although history has shown that conflict need not be disruptive, e.g. change in the United Kingdom in contrast to France (revolution occurred). In time a new cohesive order rises to replace the old.

5.6.1. Bowles in his work, *Unequal Education and the Reproduction of the Social Division of Labor* (1972; 36-44) applied this argument to education. He maintains that the rise of public education in the United States of America occurred along with, and as a consequence of, advancing capitalism. In his view capitalism weakens the family and the church and makes each less effective as an agency of socialization. His analysis points to the conflicting interests of various societal groups, and the ways to justify and maintain an exploitive system. In South Africa many Blacks share this view. Bowles' view does not account for efforts to improve schools in the interests of greater social equality.

5.6.2. Willard Waller in his work *The Sociology of Teaching* (1932) deals with a narrower field of conflict, namely conflict within the classroom. He sees coercion rather than value consensus as the basis of classroom order. He believes that the interests of teachers and students conflict and that they engage in perpetual power struggles. Order may collapse but it will be re-established by the teacher, and that children have no hope of winning. They have to subordinate themselves to the will of the teacher. The writer is of opinion that such subordination may have applied in 1932, but in 1980, while order must prevail for teaching and learning to occur, this can be achieved by co-operation of the class and not through coercion.[10] However conflict is possible, but complete subordination to rule is another concept. Such a position is unusual in Western democracies in contemporary societies, unless Waller's opinion of normal discipline to ensure learning is regarded as the autocratic rule of the teacher.

5.6.3. According to Shipman:

> *"In contemporary industrial societies, rapid technical and social change creates a persistent conflict".* (1975; 7)

He is of opinion that conflict occurs between social classes with different values: this, Shipman feels, affects schools.

> *"As schools become a major agent of cultural transmission, they are placed in the centre of this controversy over values".* (1975; 7)

According to Shipman the conflict perspective shifts from order in the school maintained through socialization, to control by coercion and indoctrination. Shipman points out that the school has the opportunity to impose a culture on children which may cause 'damage'.

> *"Teaching under these conditions is an onslaught on the self-concepts of the children to ensure that a*

minority will accept the message being promoted and that the majority will be trained to be submissive".
(Shipman 1976; 116)

5.6.3.1. Summary of Consensus and Conflict Theories.

The aim of the writer in reviewing consensus and conflict theories as applied to education has been to illustrate the importance of conceptual frameworks to the sociology of education. Theories of this nature help to explain the mechanism that makes society function. They also serve to illustrate the complex web of factors that govern what appear to be everyday components of life, e.g. Home and School. Theories also give sociologists models, in terms of which to test their ideas empirically. Such research may prove beneficial to mankind.

5.6.3.2. In regard to Home (the everyday representative of the basic institution in society, namely the Family) the complexities extend further. The social class to which a family belongs affects the life chances of the members of that family. Writers in the field of the sociology of education have concerned themselves with this phenomenon, because social class has a profound effect on progress in education. If this is the case, social class will also be of central interest to the secondary school counsellor. One of the basic reasons for the social class factor being of central concern, is the fact that at school interaction results in the imposition of values and knowledge. As Shipman states when discussing the interaction perspective,

"The focus is on the content of education, the curriculum and the interaction that occurs as individuals try to make sense of their situation". (1976; 116)

5.6.3.3. The point is, that the social class factor can be an inhibitor if there is a deficit between the culture content of the home and the culture content of the school. It is then that "cultural deprivation" becomes the problem and hinders progress.

The innate intelligence of the child is masked by these factors. It is therefore pertinent to discuss the social class factor in the Home-School issue, by reference to current research.

5.7 Family, Class and Education: Its Importance to the School Counsellor in the Link between Home and School: A Review of some of the Research in this Field.

5.7.1. *"Given the kind of educational system and the kind of relationship between school and home which exists in most of the economically advanced countries in the West, differential educability is linked to social class background ... which correlates with occupation".* (Sugarman 1966 cited by Craft 1970; 5)

5.7.2. *"It is widely agreed that the quality of family care and parental interest is one of the crucial influences, determining what a child makes of his education".* (Mays 1965; 77)

Mays (1965) did a study in the Crown Street area of Liverpool. He found that few parents made any positive demands on the school. They seemed to leave educational decisions to the teachers and accept their advice unquestioningly. In higher class neighbourhoods teachers find themselves under constant and often embarrassing parental pressure to concentrate on pupils' academic performance.

5.7.3. Swift, in an article entitled, *"Who Passes the Eleven Plus?"* published in *New Society*, 5 May 1964, maintains,

"... it is the socially aspirant middle class and the lower middle class parents, whose own careers have been unsatisfactory and whose personal ambitions have been frustrated, who make a fuss about schooling".

5.7.4. Bernstein's early research focusses on the critical importance of language on cognitive development. He was of opinion

that in England lower working class pupils, with exceptions, would experience difficulty.

> *"... in learning to read, in extending their vocabulary and in learning to use formal possibilities for the organization of verbal meaning ..."* (1971; 82)

Bernstein was of opinion that the pupil might pass the primary stage without *"a great sense of unease ..."* but at the secondary school level, the discrepancy between what he is called upon to do, and what he can do, widened. The educational process changes at this level. It becomes increasingly analytic and relies on what *Piaget* called *'formal operations'*. Bernstein found that the lower working class pupils were more likely to be restricted to *'concrete operations'*. He asserted that

> *"there is a general flatness in their overall educational achievements in the basic subjects"*. (1971; 83)

Bernstein later modified his approach, and has of course, been criticised for apparent elitism. The value of his research remains, however, the demonstration of cultural discontinuity between home and school.

5.7.5. In the United States of America, Kahl wrote of able children who do not benefit from higher education.

> *"Statistically the major explaining variable is the social class level of the boy's family, although such a statement still leaves much data unexplained about the way social class operates as a motivating force in an individual boy's life"*. (Kahl 1957; 282)

5.7.6. According to Malherbe (1977; 620), by 1950 South Africa had a higher proportion of its White population (middle class) at university than any other country with the possible exception of the United States of America. In the period 1950-1970 the increase in State expenditure on White residential universities was three times faster than the growth of the White primary and secondary

school population, which feeds these universities.

5.7.7. In the Republic of South Africa there is little research on the correlation between social class and education. The situation is complex due to the race question. Those who have counselled Black students from secondary schools have found that their motivation for educational advancement was high, despite poor housing and economic difficulties. As long ago as 1930 when there was a "poor White problem" in South Africa (due to poverty and lack of education) the problem was corrected by heeding the advice of the Carnegie Commission of 1933 that recommended 'more education' as a solution.

In 1978, in the Republic of South Africa the Centre for Applied Social Sciences of the University of Natal put out a publication edited by Stopforth and Schlemmer, entitled *Prestige and Socio-Economic Rank Order of Occupations and Occupational Groupings among Whites in South Africa.* This study shows the correlation between income and occupation, which indirectly effects education.

5.7.8. Michael Young wrote an article in 1964; 136) entitled, *Parent-Teacher Co-operation.* He observed

> *"that most of the major educational reports published in Britain, from Early Leaving through Crowther and Newsom to Robbins, have stressed the continuing difference between social classes in the educational opportunities open to them".*

5.7.9. The Robbins Report pointed out for instance that the children of higher professional people

> *"are 33 times more likely to be enrolled in full-time education at the degree level than the children of semi-skilled and unskilled workers ..."*
> *"For the period 1928-47 the percentage of boys aged 18 from manual worker origins who entered University*

was 1,4; by 1960 it had risen to 2,6 percent. The corresponding figures for boys from non-manual backgrounds was 8,9 percent and 16,8 percent".

These factors were not ascribed to lack of innate intelligence. The handicaps were inferior housing, inferior school buildings in those depressed areas; the high turnover of teachers in such schools. Then there is the fact that recent research has stressed - the relative lack of encouragement many working class children receive from their parents. There is no doubt that attainment is affected by social class.

Musgrove in his work *The Family, Education and Society* (1966) gives a penetrating analysis of the influence of home and of society in relation to academic success, and challenges many assumptions traditionally held in England. Musgrove is of opinion that the measuring of success in life in terms of school and professional examinations is detrimental to the fulfilment of the personality. He maintains that co-operation between home and school is essential and that the school should be a bridge from the home into the world.

5.7.10. David H. Hargreaves maintains that to separate life inside school from life outside school would be somewhat arbitrary. Hargreaves is of opinion that behaviour is not neatly divided into segments. Pupils impart values and attitudes from their families and friends which influence life in school. Hargreaves admits that in his particular study (1967) at Lumley Secondary Modern School,

"At no stage was it intended to unravel the complex set of inter-relations, which exist between Home and School". (1967; 140)

His study was limited to the analysis of the dynamic processes at work within the school. There was no direct investigation of the influence of home background. Homes were not visited, nor were

parents interviewed. Hargreaves admits however that,

> *"Such factors, however, are essential to a fuller understanding of the life of children in school, ..."* (1967; 140)

5.7.10.1. Dale and Griffiths analysed the entry of a co-educational grammar school over a period of five years and identified thirty-nine 'deteriorators'; children who had suffered demotion from a high to a low academic stream. A group of 'improvers' were also studied for comparison. Dale and Griffiths (1965) maintained that,

> *"Throughout our investigation the relationship between the nature of the home and the attainment of the pupil was frequently and sometimes forcibly brought to our attention".* (cited by Craft 1970; 74)

Dale and Griffiths were of opinion that for a long time they had been aware of the influence of the home on individual pupils, but the influences, strength and pervasiveness were not fully appreicated.

5.7.10.2. J.W.B. Douglas (1970) in his research project entitled *"Parental Encouragement"* resulting from a mammoth study of five thousand children, whose progress had been followed since birth, reported that *the aim* of the research was to see how the performance of children in tests and in secondary selection examinations was influenced by the attitudes of their parents and the encouragement they received at home.

The following were Douglas' findings:

> *The influence of parents on their children's chances in the secondary selection examinations were better shown when:*
>
> 1. *Children were grouped by the wishes of their parents re school choice and length of stay at school.*

2. *Children whose parents took an interest improved their scores in tests of school performance and mental ability.*
3. *Children whose parents took little interest lost ground in the tests and gained fewer places in the selection examinations than would be expected from their measured ability.*

5.7.10.3. Roma Morton Williams maintains, that the type of education which parents themselves have had is likely to colour their attitudes in one way or another towards the value of education in general and to affect their aspirations for their children. Parents' own educational experience may well also affect their understanding of what schools are trying to achieve, and may limit the extent to which they are able to follow what their children are doing irrespective of their interest or anxiety to encourage children in their school work.

The research Miss Morton Williams did, was a report on the Plowden Committee's National Survey (in England). This major investigation was based on over three thousand interviews. Research findings showed that over half these children's parents had completed their continuous full-time formal education by the age of fourteen; sixty-three percent of the fathers and eighty-one percent of the mothers had no further education after leaving school (1964; cited by Craft 1970; 162).

The Plowden Committee attached great importance to increasing the interest and understanding of parents in their children's education, through a closer partnership between parents and teachers. The Plowden Committee made specific proposals for action aimed at ensuring there was contact between homes and schools

5.7.10.4. The literature abounds with the work of many prominent researchers, in the field of the sociology of education

who draw attention to the need for greater co-operation between home and school. Michael Young is of opinion that,

> *"Parents need to be told more about what is going on in the school, its organization, its curriculum and techniques, and of course about the kinds of schools, the kinds of further education, and the kinds of jobs*

Young made the following suggestions. There should be a special school magazine for parents. They should be offered both paid and unpaid jobs at school, e.g. dinner helpers and cooks, play-ground supervisors, and auxilliaries to work under the direction of trained teachers in the classroom. He also suggested that fathers form a school service group to undertake building around the school. The aim of the parental involvement would be, that a nucleus of parents would be built up, with a close knowledge of the workings of the school. They would develop a sense of pride in the school, which could hardly fail to be passed on to their children and friends. This scheme could well be adopted in the Republic of South Africa.

5.7.10.5. John Mays witnessed in one Liverpool school the value of teachers visiting in their own homes, all the parents of all the children they taught. In this way the teachers were able to talk to the most apathetic of parents and benefit by seeing at first hand, the homes from which some of their most difficult children came.

Michael Young was so impressed with Mays' report on teachers doing home visits, that he suggested that a welfare service was needed of education visitors, who would be the equivalent for the schools of the health visitors, of clinics and hospitals. Michael Young felt teachers could not visit homes through lack of time. His idea was for these education visitors to bridge the gap between home and school. It is of interest that in South Africa, School Guidance Services are contemplating the employment of social workers.

5.7.10.6. Comment.

The foregoing review of research makes it clear that there is a general acceptance of the desirability of forging links between home and school,

> *"of clearing away barriers to communication and sources of misunderstanding between teachers and parents regarding the education of their children".* (Taylor 1971; 277)

It has already been shown that the concern for the adolescent in a disadvantaged home (or in a home where other social pathology exists, e.g. ongoing divorce) is basically the concern with one of the most fundamental relationships of society, that between the primary socializing agency of the family and the inducting agency of the school. As has been stated earlier in this dissertation in addition to home-school relationships being sociological, psychological and biological; they are political and moral. They are in keeping with what Reuchlin (1964) called the democratization of education. This is applicable equally to the Republic of South Africa, to England and the United States of America. Equal education for all is a myth unless provision is made for equalizing education. (The writer realizes that given maximum conditions no two people will obtain the same advantage from a situation.) However, teachers as Michael Young, Blyth, Marland, Williams, Patterson *et.al.* recognized, were occupied with 'teaching'. It is necessary then to establish a Guidance and Counselling service in secondary schools to deal with the personal, educational and vocational guidance of pupils in secondary schools.

It is evident from the foregoing analysis that such a service must take cognisance of the other socializing agent - the home and the peer group. This is not a wild generalization. It has the support of sociological theory and empirical research.11)

It is the Guidance and Counselling service that must

arrange for school counsellors, social workers, remedial teachers and speech therapists in co-operation with specialized psychological services to deal with the problems of the pupil. Health is a factor which must always be considered and doctors need to be consulted when appropriate or in doubt. If such a service is run efficiently it will include consultation with parents or guardians. The two major institutions of society, the family and education, will then be linked through their agents the home and the school. The counselling service will co-operate with the home in an effort to deal with if not to overcome, the cultural deprivation that is characteristic of the lower classes. It is also a function of the service to give attention to the multifactorial range of problems that impede attainment in secondary school pupils. The higher income groups are not immune. All mankind are the products of the two transmissions, hereditary and social. Social pathology, like physical disease knows no distinction.

5.8 Case Studies.

The following case studies, from the writer's own experience as a School Counsellor in a secondary school in the Republic of South Africa will illustrate the value of a link between Home and School.

NOTE:

1. In the case studies certain details have been changed to avoid identity.

2. Cases are authentic and can be verified.

3. The school was a comprehensive secondary boys' school with a population of nine hundred boys. It was situated in an upper middle class residential area with municipal status, but within easy reach of the city.

4. The writer refers to herself as T.C, meaning 'teacher-counsellor' which was the title assigned to the position held.

5.8.1. Case A.

An adolescent aged fifteen made an appointment to see T.C. It was a self-referral. T.C. had obtained the following information from the records. (The Counselling Department had devised an information sheet on personal detail, which each pupil was required to complete. In addition the cumulative record card supplied information.)

Date of Birth: 15.4.1957
Date of Interview: 6.5.1972
Form: IIIC.
Form Teacher: Mv.Z.
Subjects studied: Mathematics, English H, Science, Accountancy, Afrikaans L, Geography.
Symbols obtained in last monthly order Test: Mathematics B, English E, Science C, Accountancy A, Afrikaans E, Geography D.
Extra-mural interests: Sport: Tennis and Athletics. Enjoys running. Member of 'his House' relay team.
Hobbies: keeps goldfish.
Transport to School: Owns a buzz bike. Parents bring him to school in inclement weather. Both parents own a motor car.
Referral: Self-referred. Impressed by Group Counselling class in which T.C. had emphasized the confidentiality of an interview.
Health: Nothing untoward on his card.
I.Q: 120 Interest test had just been done.
Family Structure:
Father's occupation: Self-employed. A building contractor. Trained Artisan.
Father's educational standard: Approximately Std. 8.
Mother's occupation: Housewife. Employed part-time in local dress shop.

Mother's standard of education: Approximately Std.7.
Home environment: Own home in half acre of garden.
Personal accommodation: Own bedroom and desk for study.
Siblings: One married sister (twenty five years), one younger sister (eleven years), counselee - only son.
Other family: Grandparents deceased. Paternal Aunt who lives in the city.

Interview:

Counselee arrived with the Counselling Departmental form signed by the Form teacher giving permission to miss Religious Instruction. The boy was blond, of neat appearance, clothes were in a good state of repair. Hair cut short, according to school rules.[12] He stated that he had come for advice re leaving school. He would be sixteen in September of that year. T.C. informed him that this was legally permitted. He would need to complete Form III. He informed T.C. that he had business ability. His hobby had become profitable as he how bred and sold his goldfish to pet shops. He planned to become a salesman. T.C. discussed the question of leaving school without a matriculation certificate. He was aware of the advantages and despite the fact he knew he would pass "matric", he felt he should become financially independent of his parents. He had mentioned his intention to his parents. "They took no notice". T.C. suggested that his parents could possibly come and discuss the matter. T.C. also suggested that he should spend time browsing through "our files on the various occupations ... in case there was a career he may like to enquire about". He was about to leave the office when T.C. asked him if was sure there was nothing else bothering him. He turned to the door and suddenly burst into tears, sobbing and sobbing - T.C. realized immediately that he had some deep-seated worry that he could not easily discuss.

The Problem:

The source of his problem was that both parents were

alcoholics, the mother to a lesser extent than the father. They would "drink" before dinner and become unpleasant and "rowdy". He would have to attend to his sister aged eleven. "She gets most upset and is becoming difficult". He felt that "they will never stop drinking". The solution would be to start earning and look after his sister on his own.

T.C. realized that being young although not immature, he may have exaggerated the position. However, later his Aunt and the General Practitioner in the area were consulted. They confirmed his report. The father refused treatment; the mother however gladly accepted it. The boy did matriculate. He used to see T.C. regularly for about a year. He gradually came less frequently. He had learnt to cope and accept the situation. The Aunt proved an excellent ally. The sister's behaviour improved as the mother's habits changed. The boy has since qualified as a pilot.

The support he received from the counselling service helped him face issues that could not be changed, although some improvement was effected in the home environment. He contends that the counselling he received prevented him from leaving school prematurely and from "wrecking" his career.

5.8.2. Case B.

A worried form teacher approached T.C. concerning a boy aged thirteen in Form II. His marks in the monthly order in learning subjects had dropped by twenty percent. His Mathematics marks were down ten percent. But apart from the loss of marks he had become pale and introspective. He refused to give her any information about himself.

T.C. saw him that same day. He was as described above, very pale and anxious. T.C. encouraged him to talk about the cause of his low marks. T.C. suggested that perhaps Miss P, the form mistress and T.C. could help him with his problem.

He replied that nobody could help. His mother told him that she had a seventy five percent chance of dying very soon. He said, "You know that means only a twenty-five percent chance of staying alive".

The story followed. His father was at sea, a ship's captain employed by a large shipping company. On their recent return from Scotland, where they visited their grandmother, the mother became very ill. She was taken to hospital. He visited her daily and stayed alone in the house with his sister. They were helped by the African maid the family employed. Three weeks before the interview, the hospital arranged for his mother to go to the Pretoria General Hospital for a kidney transplant. The mother had arranged with a woman to stay with the children. She had not come. Fortunately, the boy's eight year old sister's school was close to their home. He had been in charge of the home and his sister since his mother's illness had begun. Now he desperately wanted to go and see his mother. His father, he was sure, did not realize the position.

Action was taken immediately. T.C. checked the story with the local hospital. It was accurate. T.C. telephoned the Social Worker at the Pretoria Hospital. T.C. spoke to the mother, who expressed a desire to see the children. T.C. telephoned the shipping company who contacted the father.

Arrangements were made for both children to be sent to Pretoria. The father was flown back by the company and met the children in Pretoria. The mother died before a kidney transplant could be done, ten days after the children arrived.

The father came to see T.C. He explained that he could not change his job as he was due to pension in a few years' time. A local resident took care of the children. The boy saw T.C. frequently immediately after his return to school. Teachers were kind to him and he adapted well to the situation.

Comment.

An observant form teacher was basically responsible for the boy being sent for counselling. The counselling service then could take action to help the boy and his sister by contacting the father and arranging for them to see their mother. These actions and subsequent support helped him to adapt to her death. His progress was satisfactory. "My mother always wanted me to do well at school". The children eventually returned to the grandparents in Scotland.

5.8.3. Case C.

T.C. took a Form III class for counselling. Teachers had complained about pupil X. They said he could not sit still and was always disturbing the class. T.C. observed that this was the case and asked him to come to the Counselling office.

X was an intelligent boy of approximately fifteen. We discussed the complaint and he said, "But I cannot improve because my body will not let me". He explained that he found he was unable to sit still. T.C. asked if he had difficulty in keeping still in bed. He replied that this was the case. T.C. contacted the mother. Both parents came to the interview. The mother said she had noticed that he was restless. T.C. suggested a physical check-up by their doctor. The doctor referred him to the Cardiac Clinic. He was diagnosed as having St. Vitus' Dance. He was kept in bed for three months on medication and had to return to the Cardiac Clinic for observation periodically. He returned to school after the half year and was much improved, but was not allowed to take part in sport.

Comment.

Teachers must be wary of labelling behaviour. Restlessness can be symptomatic of disease. The instant co-operation of

the parents led to the diagnosis and treatment of the boy. Another link between home and school had been forged.

The writer could cite innumerable cases from the four year period spent as a Teacher-Counsellor in one particular school. The writer could also cite cases from both the English and American research literature, but this is not necessary. Suffice to remark that the similarity between problems that counsellors experience in different parts of the Western world, would in itself make an interesting study.

5.9 Conclusion.

In this chapter the writer has focussed attention on two major institutions in society, the family represented by the home and education represented by the school. Both are active in the socialization process of the adolescent and therefore both have significance for him. Hopefully, the foregoing sociological analysis and examples from research done in this field has shown this and has confirmed the commonsense view, that both home and school can affect the outlook and development of the adolescent.

Raynor's view

"that the link between home and school is relevant to the school counsellor"

has also been confirmed. It is hoped also, that the three cases cited from the writer's own research and experience has served to endorse this confirmation.

According to Weinberg,

"The application of Sociological Analysis to Educational Guidance ... is an important increment to the kinds of knowledge that Guidance counselors and teachers already use ... sociological addition to their knowledge might help them make more sophisticated judgements in diagnosing individual problems. (1969; 10)

NOTES.

1) All societies are stratified.

2) This is a reference to Cooley and Mead. Its roots may be found in the analysis of social self by William James in his work *Principles of Psychology*. The writer will refer to Mead's work later.

3) In many cases this is not so, and this break with parental ties at an early age can lead to social pathology in the child, if not carefully handled. The literature in this field is extensive.

4) The role of nursery schools is beyond the scope of this discussion. Their value however is acknowledged.

5) The writer feels that the excellence of Davis' logic justifies his repeated inclusion in this section. Other literature has been studied, but does not state the position with the clarity that is characteristic of Davis.

6) Education and Sociology trans. Sherwood D. Fox (Glencoe, Ill.; The Free Press 1956; 72 cited by Parelius and Parelius 1978).

7) The writer is indebted to Ashley, Cohen and Slatter (1969 as reprinted in 1977) for their clear explanation of Parson's theory as applied to education.

8) This view does not take account of Guidance and Counselling.

9) Parsons does not take account for the social class factor as a cause of difficulties in attainment for working class children.

10) The teacher should put a tape-recorder in his own classroom and play it back quietly ... to himself as a check on his own behaviour in the classroom! So he can hear himself in action!

11) Apart from being influenced by his home-background and the school milieu, 'peer group socialization' is of great importance to the adolescent.

12) A bone of contention with many adolescents.

CHAPTER SIX.

ADOLESCENCE.

"The Samoan back-ground which makes growing up so easy, so simple a matter, is the general casualness of the whole society". (Mead 1961; 28)

"The term "adolescence" is derived from the Latin verb adolescere, which means "to ripen", "to grow to maturity" ... The adolescent period is therefore, the period of growth and development from the end of child-hood to the beginning of adult-manhood or womanhood". (Kelly 1965 cited by Dreyer 1980)

6.1 Introduction.

In contemporary Western society the institutions of the State and the Family have joined forces to harness the individual to the institution of education for the greater part of the period known as adolescence.

As has been shown earlier in this dissertation, *"In a rapidly changing highly rationalized society the "natural processes" of education in the family are no longer adequate. They have been replaced by a more formalized institution that is set apart from the rest of society and that covers an even longer span of time".* (James Coleman 1957; 3)

There are social theories that endeavour to explain the actions of man in society. The value-consensus theorists, e.g. Durkheim and Talcott Parsons approved of schools as necessary for the transmission of formal knowledge, beyond the bounds of the family. The conflict theorists Waller (1932) and Corwin (1965) regard schools as a form of coercion while Bowles (1972) regarded

education as a benefit to the capitalist society.

Seen in terms of history it is quite paradoxical that, for example, in democratic Britain and in free North America, after fighting for political rights in the nineteenth century and for the democratization of education in the twentieth century, the way to achieve equal education for all has come through the *'enslavement'* of the child and the adolescent to the school system in the form of *compulsory education*. A further peculiarity of the position is that in the nineteenth century *'the freedom'* of the adolescent was so abused,[1)] that compulsory education was not regarded as *'enslavement'* or interfering with the rights of the individual, but as legal protection for them. This was quite apart from the need of the child and adolescent to learn for a set period of time in order *"to be educated"*. The introduction of free and compulsory education by the State in Western society has given the period of childhood and adolescence a definite function, namely that of formal education, sometimes called *"secondary socialization"* (Berger and Luckmann 1976). It has become a norm of Western society to attend school.

> *"As an unintended consequence, society is confronted no longer with a set of individuals to be trained towards adulthood, but with distinct social systems, which offer a united front to the overtures of the adult society"*. (Coleman 1957; 4)

6.1.1. Why such concern for adolescents by the State and the Family?

In some measure, the structural functionalist sociological theories of Durkheim and later Talcott Parsons are the manifest causes for the concern by the State and the family about the adolescent.* The reason for the *State* in countries in contemporary Western society making such a financial investment in schools was and still remains that they require a well-educated population to meet the demands of the technological and electronic age (Halsey 1961, Poignant 1967). According to Thomas,

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* This does not mean that the policy makers know these theories, but that sociologists would interpret their actions as structural functional, from the point of view of sociological theory.

"In the U.S.A. - schools spend more than thirty billion dollars annually and directly involve the lives of over forty million people". (1973; 7)

The school, according to Carl Weinberg,

"is also important to families in the context of such manifest expectations as status validation, occupational mobility and even entertainments". (basket ball games and school plays)[2] (Weinberg 1969; 3)

This, according to Weinberg's research, applies in towns where the secondary school is the dominant recreational and entertainment agency in the community. The school also becomes of importance to the members of the *adolescent* age group who are required to make satisfactory adaptations to institutionalized expectations. Weinberg states that it is at this point that,

"Guidance has emerged as a sub-institution and is required to service some aspects of these social purposes, while at the same time, theoretically, mediating between the instrumental demands of the society and the differential qualities of individuals". (1969; 3)

6.1.2. The introduction of a Guidance and Counselling service in secondary schools in contemporary western society is in keeping with the importance with which the State regards the adolescent population. Shertzer (1971) describes how in the United States of America in August 1963, President Kennedy was so concerned about the ultimate harmful effects on the individual and society of 13 715 "Drop-outs" leaving school before the completion of the school year, that the President's emergency fund allocated 250 000 dollars to finance the earlier return (from vacation) of school counsellors to their schools, so that they might contact and work with potential drop-outs and their families. 'One thousand, three hundred and seventy-four counselors' in some sixty-three communities contacted 59 301 potential drop-outs. Approximately 51 percent of these returned to school in 1963, but over half of them

dropped out before school terminated in June 1964. But at least, some were salvaged by the State, through the guidance service. Parents are usually in favour of the Guidance and Counselling service, since its main purpose is to assist adolescents maximise their potential, by helping them with their problems, whether these are educational, vocational or personal. This is in keeping with parental ambition for the realization of high occupational status and sound adjustment to life of the adolescents in their families.

6.1.3. Comment and Synopsis.

1. The writer has defined adolescence and has indicated the relationship between the adolescent and the three major institutions of society, viz. the State, the Family and Education.
2. The writer has explained how the theorists have interpreted this action of the State in making education compulsory for the adolescent.
3. The manifest reasons for the concern of the *State* and the *Family* for the *adolescent* age group were given. These have a structural-functional theoretical orientation, i.e. the State requires a well-educated population to meet the demands of the technological society. The family is similarly concerned for other reasons, e.g. education for high-status occupations for personal reasons.

   "The role of the guidance counselor is functional to the school and as an institution to the society, and as such it is a fertile and legitimate area for sociological scrutiny". (Weinberg 1969; 7)
4. Finally, adolescents regard the school as important so that they can fulfill the expectations of society, which are in fact coincident with his own ambitions, e.g. to be a Doctor or a Teacher.[3)]

The main purpose of this introduction was to place the

adolescent on the societal map and show where he stands in relationship to the State, the Family and Education. It is now pertinent to discuss the adolescent as an individual.

6.2 The Adolescent as an Individual.

In terms of accepted norms in Western society the adolescent is first and foremost a member of a nuclear family. This has been a major area of sociological interest expressed by Maciver (1937), Bottomore (1961), Davis (1964), Banks (1964), Bernstein (1971) and Young (1971). Sociological enquiry has established that the individual has significance for society. One of his societal values is that he is a link in the chain of cultural transmission. During the process of living he is subjected to primary and secondary socialization (Berger and Luckmann 1976). This process emanates from two institutions in society, the Family and Education - represented by the home and the school. On attaining adulthood he will transmit his knowledge to his nuclear family or to his associates; on his death this knowledge will continue so the norms of the culture will be preserved and transmitted to posterity.

> *"As Alfred Schutz has pointed out, each social situation in which we find ourselves is not only defined by our contemporaries but predefined by our predecessors".*
> (Schutz cited by Berger 1963 reprinted 1975; 103)

6.2.1. In a modern industrial society knowledge is complex and therefore society has established schools for the purpose of the transmission of knowledge (Durkheim : Davis 1964). The adolescent at school is then a formal participant of the learning process known sociologically as secondary socialization. Bernstein points out that there has been a danger of minimizing the importance of the socialization factor of education.

> *"The school has been transformed into a complex organization or people processing institution; the study of socialization has been trivialized".* (1971; 47)

6.2.2. Seeing one of the roles and functions of each adolescent as being the transmission of culture, makes the human being appear mechanical and anonymous; a mere component of society in the line of human existence. However, there is a weakness in such an objective attitude to the purpose of human life. The reason is that sociological analysis, because of the nature of the discipline, is not straightforward. Total ~~objections~~ objectivity towards human society by a member of that society is not as simple as it would seem. This has been explained by sociologists who take up the position of the phenomenological approach in analysing reality.

> *"From the days when its major founder Edmund Husserl began his contributions to this development there has been no cessation of phenomenological thought and research".* (George Psathas 1973)

This attitude permeated sociology, psychology and psychiatry. Max Weber, one of the leading figures in the development of sociology defined the sociological enterprise as one of involving *"the interpretative understanding (versheten) of social action"*. Other sociologists who followed this direction were George Mead (1932) with his theory of interaction with the generalized other, described by Blumer and Davis' analysis (1964) of an individual being the result of two modes of transmission, one genetic and the other social which implies the hereditary and environment controversy. Berger and Luckmann (1976) with their contribution to sociological analysis of society, are also protagonists of the phenomenological viewpoint. Geoffrey Esland (1971) in a paper entitled, *Teaching and Learning as the Organization of Knowledge"*, applies the phenomenological viewpoint to teaching and learning. Esland maintains that,

> *"... the social phenomenology of Schutz and Husserl, the sociology of knowledge of Scheler, Mannheim and Mills, and the so-called symbolic interactionist school are all seen as contributing sifnificantly to this perspective".* (1971; 79)

It is the above theoretical framework which forms the basis of this consideration of the adolescent in contemporary Western society.

6.2.3. One other theoretical sociological concept concerning adolescence must be considered. The writer has noted that there is a tendency in the literature and particularly among "lay persons" to generalize about adolescence. Statements such as this are overheard in staff-rooms. "All adolescents are difficult" or "Adolescents never listen to parental advice", or adolescence is referred to as a period of "storm, stress and conflict" (Gittelson 1960, Vol. 18, 425). The point the writer wishes to make is that adolescents are not of a single homogeneous group. They vary in innumerable ways. Basically each adolescent stems from a different biological origin (unless they are siblings). They each have a different genetic inheritance and come from a different home-background. The social class factor is variable; the physical health and emotional factor is variable; the family structure may be normal in one case and socially pathological for reasons of death, divorce or other parental factors in other cases. This list of differences is inexhaustible. The only common factor in adolescence is that the literature describes adolescence as being

> *"the period from the onset of puberty until the age of twenty".*[4] (Miller 1969; 15)

From the point of view of sociologists of education, generalizations concerning *'social facts'* are unacceptable. Any statement in order to be valid must be verified empirically before it is acceptable. (Denzin 1970).

6.2.4. Conclusion.

The writer has introduced this chapter on adolescence in this way to ensure that the sociological approach is entrenched from the beginning of this analysis. The writer is in agreement with Ioan Davies (1978) when he contends that:

"The central problem ... is to avoid the non-sociological position". (1978; 268)[5)]

This approach is necessary before the subject matter in this case adolescence, becomes too specific. This it must do if this discussion is to be of value from the perspective of the Guidance and Counselling service to adolescents in secondary schools. At the same time, it is necessary to heed Berger's warning that,

"Some sociologists, especially in America, have become so preoccupied with methodological questions that they have ceased to be interested in society at all ... and they have found out nothing of significance about any aspect of social life". (Berger 1976; 24)

6.3 The Need for the School Counsellor to Relate Behaviour to Social Phenomena in Counselling Adolescents.

The writer will now consider some specific aspects of adolescents. The first to be considered is the relationship of educational and other behaviour problems to social concepts. The aim is to show the need for counsellors to explain behaviour not only in terms of psychology but taking cognisance of the social environment of the adolescent.. Maciver stressed that,

"Both Psychology and Sociology are concerned with different aspects of an indivisible reality". (1940; 19)

In the school counselling service, referred to by Rose and Marshall (1974; 225) as *"The 'Holy Trinity' of Counselling"*, namely *educational, vocational and personal counselling;* the counsellor must relate the problems that occur in each area of guidance and counselling to concepts such as social class, role conflict, social mobility and social disorganization - in seeking to adjust problems of the adolescent in the secondary school. (Weinberg 1969; Craft 1969; Marland 1974; Rose and Marshall 1974; and Jones 1977).

6.3.1. In seeking adjustment to *personal problems*, there is no doubt that Weinberg (1969) is correct when he states the following, which should be noted by the school counsellor:

> *"The size and structure of the family unit, the size and structure of the neighbourhood or community, the organization and community resources, the occupational backgrounds and educational level of parents, ethnicity, and a number of other such variables have shown to bear a relationship to such factors as delinquent behavior, school dropouts, career choice, scores on intelligence, achievement and personality tests, school grades, participation in extra-curricular activities or voluntary associations and mental illness".* (1969; 120)

The above is an extension of what Maciver means when he writes of the "indivisible reality". The school counsellor must "see" adolescent behaviour in terms of his client's total environment, paralleled with the social psychological (Jones and Gerrard 1967) and other aspects of counselling psychology (Carl Rogers 1942).

6.3.2. Vocational Guidance to the adolescent is a major function of the Guidance and Counselling service in contemporary society. In terms of sociological analysis it has been suggested that the 'status characteristics' of communities may be associated with conditions affecting the vocational choices of senior pupils. Bottomore (1962), Davis (1964), Craft (1968), and Bernstein (1971) all make mention of this fact.[6)]

At the simplest level of analysis, it is possible to argue that adolescents from a middle class community are socialized to aspire to high status occupations. Adolescents from low status communities are less likely to interact with persons from the professions; on the one hand or to be socialized to expect a great deal of education on the other (Weinberg 1969). This is borne out in the writer's investigations into twelve schools in the Greater Durban area.[7)] The counsellor from school B.6, a secondary school

situated in a lower class area, expects only six boys in the matriculation class (approximately three percent) ever to consider entering university in 1981.

The basis of the assumption concerning the distribution of status characteristics at the community level is, according to Weinberg, that,

> *"within the urban society persons of similar status occupy the same residential areas. This is important in so far as a residential area usually feeds a community school".* (1968; 30)

Weinberg is also of opinion that members of a single community have *"like interests, expectations and habits"* (1968; 30). In the writer's view, "like interests" can only be interpreted in a wide connotation, which allows for considerable variation. However, the writer is in agreement with Weinberg when he states,

> *"The analysis of the interaction of the school as a social institution and the community as a social type proceeds on this basis, ..."* (1964; 120)

Namely, that persons of similar status occupy the same residential area, by virtue of income and occupation and educational level. In the experience of the writer, counselling adolescents in an upper-class area, the income and occupational index of parents does not mean that adolescents from these homes are informed concerning the requirements for professions, or other occupations. It was found by the writer that their knowledge was limited to information concerning their parent's occupation and they required counselling concerning other professions and occupations. Similarly, in a school like B.6[8)] in a lower class area a capable boy who could qualify for a bursary, and whose matriculation examination results are expected to be an A grade for mathematics and science could study either Medicine or Engineering. His home milieu would not have initiated this idea, but the Teacher-Counsellor could educate him about these professions and assist him obtain bursaries to enter

the field of his choice. The Teacher-Counsellor must not on any account let family class interfere with a promising pupil's career chances. Teacher-Counsellors have a great responsibility when giving vocational guidance to adolescents and must also allow for the late maturer.

Pupil X expressed the wish to do Dentistry. The university required a confidential report on the boy's ability. His marks in mathematics and science were only mediocre (C and D respectively). The boy did not require a bursary as the parents could pay the university fees. His keenness to become a dentist impresssed the writer. The boy had a good general school record. Both the principal and the writer decided to recommend him for the course. He surpassed all expectations, qualifying as a dentist in the required time and obtaining higher than average results each year. Teacher-Counsellors must beware of passing 'judgements on ability' as a result of school performance. Other factors must be considered. Negative attitudes by Teacher-Counsellors can ruin the career chances of adolescents.

6.3.3. Comment.

Both the personal and vocational counsellor must take cognisance of social class and other factors, as causes of disturbance in adolescents. On the other hand social class must not pre-determine advice on vocational choice. All pupils must be judged on their ability and interests, regardless of parental achievement. If this is not the case the object of the Guidance and Counselling service which is to maximize potential, will not be achieved. Adolescents will then be hindered by counsellors, who they (adolescents) may regard as 'models', and would , through heeding their wrong advice, ruin their life chances.

"Teachers in particular, often the only non-parental adults relating to children need to understand how to help adolescents to mature". (Miller 1969; Introduction)

6.4 The Interpretation of Adolescence by Contemporary Writers.

Bruce Shertzer (1971) has stated that educators, psychologists and sociologists have long been concerned with the significance of the physical, social and psychological dimensions of adolescence.

6.4.1. But it was Margaret Mead that turned anthropological analysis to use in explaining change in the contemporary Western family and adolescence in consequence, by comparing cultures. Her research while living and studying with the isolated inhabitants of American Samoa, resulted in the classic *Coming of Age in Samoa.* She is of opinion, (as a result of forty years of research in varying cultural groups, e.g. the mountain Arapesh of New Guinea, and the Polynesians, a people scattered on remote islands (1972; 38)), that adolescents who experience conflict in contemporary Western society do so not as a result of biological and physiological change, but due to "social forces". She finds the root cause for "conflict" in some adolescents in Western society as being the failure of the society to cope with social change in the structure of the family. Margaret Mead uses the following terminology in her explanation. She draws a distinction between three different kinds of culture.

> *"Post-figurative in which children learn primarily from their forbears, cofigurative, in which both children and adults learn from their peers, and pre-figurative, in which adults learn also from their children".* (1972; 32)

These three types of cultures

> *"are a reflection of the period in which we live".* (1972; 32)

Margaret Mead explains that in a post-figurative culture change is slow and imperceptible. This culture depends upon the actual presence of three generations.

> *"It depends for continuity upon the expectations of the old, and upon the almost ineradicable imprint of these*

expectations upon the young". (1972; 35)

The point of relevance to the adolescent is that the adolescent in such a culture finds that,

> *"... The answers to the questions: Who am I? What is the nature of my life as a member of my culture? How do I speak and move, eat and sleep, make love, make a living, become a parent, meet my death? are experienced as predetermined".* (1972; 35)

6.4.2. Contrast this with contemporary Western society, where the nuclear family consisting only of parents and children was established. According to Margaret Mead, in many families in the United States of America, the following applies:

> *"The nuclear family was established, a close relationship to the grandparents was no longer expected of grand-children, and parents as they lost their position of dominance, handed over to children the task of setting their own standards".* (1972; 83)

The prevailing model for members of the society in this configurative culture is the behaviour of their contemporaries. Although this may not apply to all families, the situation in which cofiguration occurs is one in which the experience of the younger generation is radically different from that of their parents, grandparents and other members of their immediate community.

> *"The past, once represented by living people, becomes shadowy, easier to abandon and to falsify in retrospect".* (Mead 1972; 71)

The mass media constitute another factor that influences the adolescent in contemporary Western society. Quite apart from television,

> *"The invention of the computer, the successful splitting of the atom, the invention of the fission and fusion bombs, the discovery of the bio-chemistry of the living*

cell, the exploration of the planet's surface ..."
(ibid 1972; 87)

have brought about *"drastic division ... between generations"* (1972; 88). This Margaret Mead maintains has led to a world-wide *"generation gap"*. This however, depends not so much on age difference, but on *"knowledge gaps"* between one generation and another.

Crucial to the adolescent in this cofigurative society is the fact that there are no set patterns of preparation for adult roles during adolescence. In Western society this is the cause of conflict.

6.4.3. Hans J. Dreyer (1980) in a work entitled, *Adolescence in a Changing Society* describes how in traditional Zulu society,

> *"... the whole community was interested in the child's progress, the child found his models of behaviour all around him. He was presented with a single set of beliefs, values and behaviour codes, the acceptance of which ensured the advantages of recognition and status in the adult community ... the individual generally conformed without question".* (Van der Vliet 1974; 211, 212 cited by Dreyer 1980; 16)

Definite ceremonies - *"rites of passage"* - marked the beginning of puberty in both males and females. These according to Gottlieb (1966) helped the adolescent become adult and accept new norms of society without inner conflict, since the structure of the society established *"who they were"* without question. However, with westernization of Zulus, the Zulu adolescent is described as being in *"a ~~traditional~~ transitional society"* (Dreyer 1980; 22). The mention of the above is in order to illustrate post-figurative cultures (Zulu) with cofigurative cultures, in respect of the adolescent in the Republic of South Africa.

Comment.

It can be seen therefore that Margaret Mead's theory that social phenomena cause conflict in the adolescent in contemporary Western society, could be the *source* of conflict in some adolescents who lack direction from parents, and turn to their peer group to seek identity and understanding of their developing adult roles. This can result in a barrier between parents and adolescents, and lead to aggressive behaviour, which is *"labelled as conflict due to the physical changes of adolescence"*. In fact it is not the endocrinal development that causes the conflict, it is the unwillingness of parents to acknowledge the gradual emergence of adulthood, physically, mentally and socially that causes the conflict. While contemporary society need not revert to *"initiation rites"* to normalize physical change in adolescence, the media could be harnessed by educators and parents to inform adolescents at secondary schools on all aspects of this period of their lives. The sub-institution of Guidance and Counselling is the ideal channel through which this information could be filtered in the secondary school. If this is not done adolescents will continue to seek out the peer group.

> *"... the peer group may provide something that children seek, but it may do so in ways that are not constructive"*. (Smith 1962 cited by Shertzer and Stone 1971; 11)

6.4.4. Munson (1971) is of opinion that adolescence can be seen from various positions. Adolescence is most often defined as *"the years of growth between childhood and adulthood"* (1971; 56). It is also defined in Munson's view

> *"as a developmental process emphasizing the physiological-psychological aspects of human growth; others have chosen to emphasize the sociological"*. (1971; 57)

Munson elaborates on the above position by pointing out that the conceptual differences are all geared towards the same emphasis namely the growth of the adolescent towards maturity. He also

believes that,

> *"Adolescence is the business of the developmental counselor, and his growing and learning is the core of the counselor's existence".* (1971; 51)

6.4.5. Gesell and his associates, Ilg. and Ames describe the adolescent patterns and stages of growth in their book, *Youth: The Years from Ten to Sixteen.* Human maturation is characterized by Gesell as a gradual, sequential ongoing orderly patterned process. He emphasizes that within this process, one must take into account the environment and individuality of each human being. The developmental aspects of the process and the behavioural manifestations of growth towards maturity are subject to considerable variation.

6.4.6. Erik H. Erikson in his work, *Identity: Youth and Crisis,* proposes a concept of human development that concentrates on the gradual emergence of an ego identity. Ego identity, according to Erikson, is a complex developmental process in which the individual deals both with himself and his environment.

> *"Erikson's formulation of ego identity is not a theory of adolescence but more a conceptualization of the psycho-sexual development of man".* (Munson 1971; 58)

Erikson maintains that the identity process begins at birth and extends well into the adult years. He believes that the period of adolescence is critical and demanding. Adolescence makes critical demands on the ego.

> *"It is the ego's function to integrate the psycho-sexual and psycho-social aspects on a given level of development and at the same time to integrate the relation of newly added identity elements with those already in existence".* (Erikson 1968; 162 cited by Munson)

6.4.7. The school counsellor in his efforts to counsel the adolescent towards adjustment and improvement,

> *"cannot afford to overlook its vital and significant role in the psycho-social development of the individual".* (Munson 1971; 59)

Such consideration is necessary, in addition to the social phenomena that affect the individual.

6.4.8. Other writers take into account the physiological aspect of puberty and its effect on the attitudes and actions of the adolescent.[9] Derek Miller (1969; 15) is of opinion that adolescence can be defined as a process of adaptation to puberty. He describes adolescence by dividing it into three stages. *The first stage* is from about eleven years of age until about fourteen. This he terms: *early adolescence*. It is in this stage that the period of puberty emerges. Puberty refers to the relatively brief period of physiological change within the period of adolescence, during which the sexual organs become mature. Because Western society does not mark the onset of puberty with initiation rites as is the case in traditional societies, adolescents in this period need more support and understanding from the institutions in our society that act as the guardians of the young, namely the home and the school.

> *"The home is of the greatest importance to the adolescent. If it is a good home, it provides love and security; it transmits to him the mores and standards of society and helps him in his adjustments to the outside world".* (Lovell 1967; 249)

Early adolescents require from school a feeling that their environment is stable and secure. They need at this stage,

> *"to try themselves out on a whole variety of intellectual, emotional and physical activities".* (Miller 1969; 21)

At this stage, according to Miller, little is known of the thinking

capacities in early adolescence. According to Jersild (1967) and Piaget, the adolescent in this age group is capable of truly abstract thought:

> *"But at this stage his preoccupation with his body consumes his attention". (ibid* 1969; 22)

According to Miller's judgement adolescents at puberty go through a period when they are less able to concentrate and work efficiently. Some adolescents are "late developers". This causes emotional problems.

The school staff, and particularly the School Counsellor, can play an important role in easing the transition to adulthood, in this early stage of adolescence. Adolescence can be a topic in a group counselling class. It can be pointed out that this is a time of rapid growth and no pupil need feel sensitive about this time of life. Lovell points out that,

> *"... the adolescent is particularly sensitive to injustice, sarcasm or lack of understanding whether within or without the home".* (1967; 244)

The teacher-counsellor can lecture on adolescence to the staff, so that they can update their knowledge and so have a renewed sympathetic understanding of the pupils they teach. This can be based on the physiological-psychological and mental development of this age group. The emotional aspect and the sensitivity of adolescence can be emphasized. This will help to ease the problems of adolescents in the school.

Derek Miller regards the period from fourteen to eighteen years of age as *mid-adolescence*. It should be pointed out that chronological classifications differ considerably. This period is regarded as a period of identification. It is a period of self-realization. *"This is what I am".* Meek (1930) regarded this stage as a period of fleeting interests moving to a greater stability of interests, which become fewer in number but more meaningful.

The last stage of adolescence Miller terms *late adolescence*. He maintains that this is from the age of eighteen until twenty years of age. This late period if associated with advanced training for specific roles in society.

6.4.9. But there are various interpretations of adolescence. Shertzer and Stone (1971) are of opinion that puberty is a part of adolescence but not synonymous with it. They hold the view that it is the necessity to cope with the conditions of puberty, that bring forth a variety of modes of tension release and defences in the individual which are responsible for the sometimes unusual behaviour all too frequently cited by adults of the major characteristics of this age. These authors make so bold as to suggest that most authorities would agree with the following generalizations about adolescence (1971; 7). The writer is indebted to them for this digest of the position, which represents their interpretation after considerable research.

6.4.9.1. Adolescence is a transition period between childhood and adulthood. It refers to the physiological and psychological characteristics dominant between puberty and maturity. Note that their opinion on chronological age differs from Derek Miller's interpretation. They believe that,

> *"The use of chronological age to denote the period is virtually meaningless because the onset of puberty varies fairly widely".* (1971; 5)

Similarly, they do not fix the end of adolescence.

> *"Researchers agree on no specific age as the termination for adolescence".* (1971; 5)

6.4.9.2. They next discuss the aspect of adolescence which is the central consideration of this age group.

> *"Physical and sexual maturation as evidenced by both the primary and secondary sex characteristics ... result in shifts in attitude towards the proper*

masculine and feminine sex role".

Their argument reaches the crux of the matter,

> *"This period of development includes the acceptance of one's own physical self and its potential reproductive process". (ibid* 1971; 6)

6.4.9.3. They then deal with the area of adolescence that can cause the greatest turmoil. As much as Miller's third stage - adolescent may realize the value of education they may require to earn. Shertzer and Stone also recognize this fact.

> *"Adolescence also includes searching for emotional, social and economic independence".* (1971; 6)

In order to fulfill his role as an adult and gain social and emotional independence, the adolescent knows that he requires to earn a living. But the technological society requires a high standard of education for ultimate success and he is often forced to remain financially dependent on parents for longer than he would wish. This can cause conflict in some cases. But as Shertzer and Stone state,

> *"It is a time for the individual to utilize at a more mature and complex level the ability to give as well as get, to communicate with others and to trust them and to learn what is good and what is harmful for himself and others".* (1971; 6)

In fact the above description of adolescence shows it to be a period in which the adolescent is in a period of transition between late childhood and early adulthood. It is therefore characterized by physical development, a process of 'maturing' and a more responsible outlook for oneself and others. This stage however is only reached in the latter part of adolescence.

6.4.9.4. The literature on adolescence is extensive. Stanley Hall, often called the father of child study in America, collected

extensive data and wrote many descriptions of adolescent behaviour. In brief Hall and other early psychologists believed the adolescent period to be a metamorphic one for the individual. Typical of this view was the outcome of Meek's research during the 1930's. He noted the following changes, which occur during the transition from childhood to adolescence.

6.4.9.5. a. From the period of body contour having little shape to body contour and stature resembling an adult.

b. From the period of little regard for peer standards and status among peers, to that marked by a larger concern about them in relation to the adult culture to which he aspires.

c. From the period when activity is engaged in for its own sake, to that marked by much modified adult behaviour.

d. A period in which there is a change in the pattern of social activities.

e. From a period marked by temporary and transient friendships to one marked by friendships which are sustained and steady.

f. And as has already been stated Meek commented on the fleeting interests of adolescents which become fewer in number but vastly more meaningful as the adolescent grows towards adulthood.

6.4.9.6. Max Gittelson's *Character Synthesis* appeared in the American Journal of Orthopsychiatry (Vol. 18, July 1948; 425). The following extract clearly shows the paradoxes that can occur during the adolescent phase of development in Western society.

"The adolescent is altruistic and egocentric, devoted and unfaithful, gregarious and solitary, blindly submissive to a leader and defiant of authority, idealistic and cynical, sensitive and callous, ascetic and libertine,

optimistic and pessimistic, enthusiastic and indifferent".

6.4.9.7. George Gallup and Evan Hill in their mammoth work, *Youth - the Cool Generation* (1961; 64) based their conclusions on interviews with 3 000 American young people between fourteen and twenty years of age. They presented the following composite portrait at the beginning of 1960.

"No one can say that the American Youth is going to hell. He's not. But he is a pampered hot-house plant and likes it that way. The beatnik is a rarity, the delinquent is a minority.
Our typical youth will settle for low success rather than risk high failure. He has little spirit of adventure. He wants to marry early at twenty-three or twenty-four after a college education ... He wants an expensive new car and a job with a large company. He is a reluctant patriot, who expects nuclear war in his time and would rather compromise than risk all out war. He is highly religious yet winks at dishonesty. Essentially he is quite conservative and cautious".
(1961; 64)[11)]

6.4.10. The above researchers are doubtlessly of opinion that American youth (and this applies equally to the youth of other Western countries) are in the main conformists, who are affectionate, sympathetic, considerate and moral. The writer found this to be the case with the majority of boys in a school of 900 when counselling adolescents from 1971- 1974. Those who were not had problems of a lesser or greater degree, as indicated below. [12)]

6.4.11. Case 1.

Jim aged sixteen years hated the practical class. He was tall for his age and a handsome lad. His behaviour varied from aggression to submissive politeness. He told the writer he was

frustrated in the practical class. "We do not get the good teachers; we are laughed at by other boys who think we are 'dumb'. The work is not of high standard and most of us are bored". On enquiry into his case the writer found he had lived overseas and therefore was "bad" at Afrikaans. He had also failed history in Std. VI, but explained they were new to Natal and his Dad had not yet found work. His senile grandmother lived with them and he found her presence distressing. The writer asked his mother to come and see her. The mother explained that the factors he had mentioned were a minor worry; his greatest problem was that he suffered from enuresis. This bed-wetting habit was such a source of embarrassment and worry that he could not concentrate properly. He was referred to a psychiatrist who claimed to have a method of curing this problem. He also had a urological examination to exclude physical disease. His mother reported that he improved considerably and in consequence his school work improved. He was moved to a higher grade and coped adequately. His behaviour improved in consequence.

6.4.12. Case 2.

A narcoleptic was accused of being lazy and on drugs. He was in the practical class and was referred to the writer by his form teacher. All the teachers agreed that something was wrong and *"since he is always falling asleep he must be a drug addict"*. The parents were unable to come for an interview but wrote notes and telephoned. The mother was co-operative and intelligent and found the situation worrying. She was certain he was not on drugs. The writer recommended a medical check-up. Apparently the boy fell asleep while the doctor was talking to him. E.C.G. (Electro-encephalogram) tracings were done after neurological examination and the diagnosis was this distressing problem of narcolepsy, where the patient falls asleep involuntarily. He was given medication which was not very helpful. He was advised to leave school and train as a leather craftsman.

Comment.

Medical opinion must be sought before teachers accuse an adolescent of "taking drugs" or of being a "behaviour problem".

6.5 David Matteson (1975; 1) is of opinion that the conflict of adolescence is in fact the search for identity, the struggle to choose who one is in relation to the larger society. He maintains that this attempt to establish identity has its beginnings long before puberty which is the official mark of the beginning of adolescence.

6.5.1. Matteson believes that sex role learning is one of the key factors in the identity crisis. Matteson cites Sanford Dornbush (1966; 207-8) as follows:

> *"Ascription by sex is one of the few aspects of identity which is assigned at birth and remains unchanged throughout the individual's life. Those areas of personality that are related to the cultural sex roles do not usually change during the individual's life.*

Since in the main one's sex does not change, sex roles tend to be more stable than roles assigned according to other criteria. Matteson is of opinion that in American society, aspects of personality which are related to the sex assigned roles are among the most stable characteristics of the individual personality, despite the women's liberation movement, which Matteson claims

> *"is the impression given by mass media, but it has not as yet been validated by careful empirical research so that it is hard to assess how deep such trends may be and whether they apply to more than a small educated subculture".* (1975; 47)

Matteson gives as a reason for the importance he attributes to sex roles, the fact that the difference in *"our culture's sex roles"* parallel closely to the two worlds between which the adolescent moves.

The home, the world of child rearing is closely linked with warm personal 'feminine' roles. When adolescents seek to enter the adult society, outside the home, they face a tougher, more objective and predominantly 'masculine' orientation (1975; 2).

In Matteson's view the sex-role issue provides the background for understanding the identity crisis because of the close connection between the sex role and the move from home to world. He admits that sex roles are not the only factor in the adolescent identity crisis, but feels that an understanding of sex development is essential in order to comprehend the identity crisis in today's youth. When adolescents indulge in sexual licentiousness with which they are too young to cope they lose their true identity in the confusion that follows. This is not only a lower class phenomena. This type of behaviour has been reported in schools in both upper and lower class areas (See Report of twelve schools, particularly co-educational schools 1 and 2 in Part II of this dissertation.

6.6 Other Attitudes towards Adolescence.

Several authors point out that one of the pitfalls of adult views of adolescence is that adults tend to over-emphasize negative qualities. The writer has already commented on the tendency to generalize, and to treat adolescents as if they were from a single homogeneous group. Shertzer and Stone (1971) and Friedenberg (1967) have both noted the presence of negative attitudes towards adolescents.

Friedenberg's comments in an essay entitled, *Adolescence as a Social Problem* (1967; 43-44) are worthy of consideration. He is of opinion that many adults seem to use the term *"teenager"* and "juvenile delinquent" as if they were synonymous. They regard the youth problem as one of law enforcement or treatment for the emotionally disturbed. Sociologists of education recognize that juvenile delinquents are merely one single category of adolescent

youth.

6.6.1. Friedenberg agreed with Paul Goodman who in *Growing up Absurd* sees

> *"... the entire process of growing up as a youth problem created by society in response to tensions and factors that affect us all* (and) *to which the young are simply more vulnerable".* (1960; 394-408) [13)]

6.6.2. These tensions in the youth result from the fact that Western society has no definite mechanism to deal with the onset of puberty or the rapid growth spurt which 'confuses' the adolescent. We lack continuity of socialization. Friedenberg contends that adolescents are a problem to adults primarily because unless forestalled, they tend to be 'more human' than our society can accommodate. By this he refers to the idealistic attitudes of youth due to inexperience that at times may be impractical. He claims that the youth of today are more confident and self-aware and uninhibited, facts which Western society is not flexible enough to accept. Therefore adolescents are pressurized to conform.

> *"Society has at most eight years to shape them up; after this it must in the interests of its own continuity somehow find a place for all those who do not become criminal or psychotic".* (1967; 44)

The aim of a Guidance and Counselling service is to provide opportunities for adolescents to prepare for life ahead, taking cognisance of social change so that the period of adolescence becomes a time of not only "formal education", but of preparation for life ahead. Hopefully they will not become psychotic or criminal but well adapted members of society.

6.6.3. Friedenberg, discussing the class factor in adolescence, refers to August Hollingshead's classic, *Elmstown Youth* (New York, 1949). He maintains that the latter remains the most valuable presentation of the impact of social class on adolescents.

"Although there has been much more change in the class structure itself, Elmstown has become almost suburban in the past fifteen years". (1967; 43-44)

He also points out the influence of social status on how a student is treated at school, on his self image and ultimately on his life's chances - for it was by life chances that Max Weber defined 'social class'.

Friedenberg remarks that

"traditionally adolescence became established in cultures that took account of it as a period of self-definition and identity-seeking; of interaction with diverse individuals and experimentation with various social roles, under conditions where the adolescent was neither permitted as much freedom, nor held fully responsible as an adult would have been. Its function was to aid the youngster in finding out his position and identity". (*ibid* 1967; 44)

Comment.

The views of Friedenberg and Margaret Mead are similar. In Western society, puberty pushes the young into a decade of limbo. Adolescents' behaviour that adults call irresponsible simply reflects the failure of society to provide any responsible position in it for them. There is no genuine "adolescent society" or "peer culture" to be contrasted with that of the surrounding adult world. They are controlled by a dominant social group into which they themselves know, they must ultimately be absorbed.

6.6.4. The educational systems in the Western world keeps those in the upper range of adolescence out of economic competition and self-sufficiency because of the rising educational requirements for employment. This in the late stage of adolescence may well lead to the increasing practice of pre-marital relationships between

young men and women who economically could not afford a more binding relationship such as early marriage. (The desirability of this is another question.)

Many adolescents remain conservative in their lifestyle practices. They see in persons who are enough like them, evidence that life holds promise of fulfillment for them in the future despite restrictions placed on them during adolescence.

It can be seen that adolescence requires what Erikson has called "the strength of disciplined devotion" both in personal relationships and to wider purpose, whether private or expressed through political or social action in order to meet the approval of adults in their society.

6.6.5. Friedenberg (1967), Weinberg (1969), Shertzer (1971) and Munson (1971) all agree that compulsory education is an indispensable part of the socialization process by which the adolescent becomes an adult. In the twentieth century, as has been shown in this dissertation appropriate educational programmes for adolescents have been designed in most Western countries. United States of America, Britain and the Republic of South Africa. The principle of equality of opportunity, commensurate with ability has been taken to mean not only that all adolescents have the right to public school education, but that individual differences must be taken into account.

According to Shertzer and Stone (1971; 24) the development of an educational programme,

> *"that is closely related to the unique abilities, interests and experiences of those whom it is designed to serve has become an even greater challenge to teachers, counselors and administrators ..."* (1971; 24)

6.6.6. In order to ensure that the knowledge transmitted is worthwhile, sociologists of education like Young (1971), Bernstein (1971), Nell Keddie (1973) and Ioan Davies (1974) have in the last

decade been engaged in research on the content of curricula and other related topics in research into the sociology of knowledge.

6.6.7. In a discussion on Guidance and Counselling in British schools Robin Pedley as early as 1969 maintained that,

> *"Society like all living things is constantly changing and perhaps the true role of counsellor and teacher is simply to help every student to be equipped to take his own decisions about the direction and pace of change in his own world".* (Pedley 1969; 25)

This view is shared by Paul Woodring, Rogers, Shertzer, Patterson and Pietorefessa and Vriend among many other current thinkers. This is also the attitude presently adopted by the Natal Education Department and the wider counselling service in the Republic of South Africa (1980).

6.7 Youth Problems that Confront Educational Authorities and Examples of Research Studies done to explain them.

The writer has emphasized that the study of human behaviour can be undertaken from various perspectives.

> *"The perspectives of psychological models will utilize operational definitions that incorporate the orientations of the prominent paradigms in the discipline".* (Weinberg 1969; 119)

Sociological research follows the same procedure within its frame of reference. But in addition to noting psychological paradigms, sociologists of education in endeavouring to explain youth problems that confront school counsellors must see the individual in the context of his whole environment. The actions of the adolescent cannot be judged as if he lives in limbo, a disconnected being. He must be seen as a member of society. Cognisance must be taken of social class, socio-economic conditions, disorganization within the family and the deeper societal issues as explained by Margaret

Mead in an earlier part of this chapter. There is no doubt that the psychological aspects of adolescence are also of major importance.

6.7.1. It is in this context that the writer lists the following youth problems as cited by Shertzer (1971). They have application to Western society in the last quarter of the twentieth century, because as Margaret Mead has pointed out,

> *"Technology has transformed society making it a 'world community'".* (1972)

The problems are as follows:

1. School drop-outs.
2. Pregnancies of unmarried teenagers.
3. Rising rate of high school marriages.
4. Delinquency.
5. Youth unemployment.
6. Drug abuse.
7. Sexual behaviour.
8. Distrust of adults.

6.7.2. All these, which have become socio-psychological individual problems stem from environmental influences, due to deeper social forces in society, e.g. the school drop-out is largely a social class phenomenon. This however does not only refer to the lower classes. It can include adolescents from affluent families. In fact all the above factors can be found in all classes of society. Olive Banks (1968) states:

> *"Social class is not a particularly straight forward concept and there are in fact many differences in the precise definition or classification employed in different studies* (1968; 53)

It is not the purpose here to describe sociological views of the social classes, but rather to indicate that they exist and that

teacher-counsellors must realize their existence, e.g. there are according to Shertzer, large and consistent differences in attitude or ideology among adolescents of different family income and occupational circumstances (1971; 14). Drop-out research studies make it clear that early school leavers are from the lower strata rather than from middle or upper class families. The following studies indicate this.

6.7.2.1. 1. Hollingshead reported that some ninety-three percent of the youth from the upper class and upper middle class families were in school, whereas forty-one percent from upper lower families and eighty-nine percent from lower-lower class families had left school (cited by Shertzer and Stone 1971; 15).

2. Other studies on school drop-outs were done by Jacques, *"Hastings High School works on the Drop out Problem"*, (published in the Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 35, September 1956).

3. Harold Bernard (1963 as reprinted in 1971)[14] suggested four fundamental causes for the high rate of drop-outs among the lower social classes:

a. Lower class students do not take part in extra-mural activities. They are not an integral part of the school.
b. They cannot afford 'clothes' ... and do not gain peer approval.
c. They cannot afford hidden costs, e.g. books, etc.
d. They are not welcome in all cliques.

4. Williams (1963) did research entitled *Drop-outs*.[15] He based his remarks upon data collected from 13 715 drop-outs in Maryland schools during the 1960-61 school year and reported that four reasons accounted for 77,6 percent of school leavers:

1. Lack of interest in school.
2. Lack of success in school.
3. Economic necessity.
4. Marriage and pregnancy.

It can be deduced from the above results that causes 1, 2 and 3 could be found in all classes of society although Olive Banks (British Sociologist) states that a number of national and international comparisons show that,

> *"children of manual workers are less likely to enter and to graduate from higher education not only in Europe but also in the United States ..."* (1968; 54)

Olive Banks (1969) also claims that it has been shown that children of professional and semi-professional parents have five-and-a-half times as great a chance of graduating from college as children of manual workers and the chances of those of managerial parents although smaller, are still two-and-a-half times as great as those of manual workers. Olive Banks is of opinion that these facts apply in the United States of America as well as in Western Europe.

Wolfe (1968, cited by Olive Banks 1968) demonstrated that the socio-economic background of the adolescent is related to school retardation, academic grades, age of leaving school and percentage of youngsters who remain in school for any designated level. However, Olive Banks points out that in the United States of America the biggest drop-out in the educational system is at college not at high school - in Europe however, the drop-out rate is highest before the statutory age of leaving school is reached.

Comment.

Research on school drop-outs has been used to illustrate the correlation between social class and school drop-outs. The psychological and behavioural factors have their source in deeper social phenomena. Since this is a dissertation, not a text-book, it is beyond the writer's present purpose to detail root social causation for the remaining youth problems listed by Shertzer. However, the writer's main purpose is to illustrate the importance of these facts so that the school counsellor can take note of "hidden causes" in behaviour problems of adolescence.

The following are more recent research studies which concern adolescents. These studies have been reported in Journals in both America and Britain.

Eugene W. Kelly Jr. and Thomas J. Sweeney, did a research study entitled *Typical Faulty Goals of Adolescents: a Base for Counseling*. This was published in *The School Counselor (U.S.A.)*, Vol. 26, No. 4, March 1979, pp. 236-246. This study deals with the personal problems of adolescents.

Kelly and Sweeney propose that the behaviour of many adolescents may be understood as a function of certain immediate goals, representing patterns of attitudes and behaviour by which the ultimate goals of belonging and self-esteem are sought. The immediate goals include, for example, conformity, popularity, defiance, inadequacy, charm, beauty and religiosity. The authors maintain that these goals are based on faulty beliefs and often encourage inappropriate responses from peers and adults, which may reinforce rather than correct the beliefs. The article offers ways in which counsellors and other adults may help to confront and reorient adolescents who display such goals.

Another study concerning establishing interest in adolescents in vocations and careers was reported in the *Careers Quarterly*, Volume 30, No. 1, 1979, pp. 12-17, in an article by J.B. Bartlett entitled, *Widening Job Horizons - Some results with a new system.*

A "Job Profile" system was developed consisting of a file of 159 job cards, edge-punched on 68 'classification items', (educational requirements, interests, conditions of work, etc.). The system was tested in three schools in individual sessions of 20-25 minutes, during which each youngster could apply to five successive choices of holes to the 68 items, then sort the resulting cards into "interested" and "not interested" piles, and finally choose the five jobs which appealed most. One hundred and forty-eight pupils were followed up about six weeks later, and reported a total of 224 new

ideas about jobs as a result of the sessions. Fifty-five percent of these were still of definite or possible interest to the pupils at the time of the follow up. Many pupils had actively sought further information on these ideas.

The value of research on vocational, educational and the personal needs of adolescents is inestimable. It is also essential to obtain the views of adolescents themselves, of the counselling services in their schools. The writer's research in Part II of this dissertation, namely the questionnaire submitted to past pupils had this as its goal.

An interesting study entitled *Counselling, Support and Advice: the Adolescent viewpoint* (Porteous and Fisher 1980) was published in the *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, Vol. 8, No. 1, January 1980. This study dealt with the viewpoint of adolescents in regard to counselling. Data presented on the preferences of adolescents with regard to helping services show, that no one method of providing help would be adequate. An indication of the number of relatively isolated and unsupported adolescents is given, suggesting that 20-40 percent of young people lack a regular source of advice or understanding.

The writer concurs with the opinion of the above authors, that

> *"Professional and official sources of advice are rarely used, and are not likely to be until they improve their accessibility and image in the eyes of the youth".*
> (Porteous and Fisher 1980; 67)

A noteworthy study concerning the sexual behaviour of adolescents is that of Sapire and Davey (1979), entitled *Contraception and the teenager*. They make a plea for sex education programmes.

> *"Knowledge is not permission ... It is important to understand all the implications of sexual involvement including the dangers of promiscuity and venereal disease and the hazards of illegal abortion". (South African Journal of Hospital Medicine*, May 1979, Vol. 5, No. 5; 156-158)

6.8 Conclusion.

Adolescence is seen by Coleman (1961) as a sub-culture in industrial society. Hargreaves (1968) sees pupils as being a sub-culture in the classroom. Coleman states:

> *"The adolescent is no longer a child, but will spend his energy in the ways he sees fit. It is up to the adult society to so structure secondary education that it captures this energy".* (Coleman 1963; 328)

Munson states that the school is the setting in which educational experience occurs. This being the case it,

> *"can be considered as a net-work of social relationships comprising a social system as intricate as any within society".* (Munson 1971; 66)

This is the social milieu in which teaching and learning occur. The adolescent is the central figure for whom education is planned.

> *"The learner must be viewed not only in terms of his uniqueness but in terms of his wholeness".* (Munson 1971; 66)

The real issue is that adolescents at secondary schools in contemporary Western society must be seen both as members of educational institutions and as members of other institutions, e.g. the family and the peer group. The sub-institution of Guidance and Counselling is a mid-twentieth century phenomenon designed to bridge the gap between the school and society. The practical issues of life have to be faced by school counsellors and teachers if the adolescent is to benefit from education in a secondary school in order to meet the challenges of a changing world.

Adolescence is a transitional stage between childhood and adulthood. In Western English-speaking society its onset and ending are not marked by appropriate *rites of passage*, making one of the problems of this period a lack of clarity and definition. This is the period in which *the onset of changing status and roles*, create

problems for the individual in Western society not experienced in other cultures. In a sense the adolescent is *marginal* between childhood and being a man or woman, and experiences the uncertainties, conflicts and frustrations of marginality.

These difficulties in part vary with the socio-economic background, as well as the family circumstances and not merely with individual personality factors. It is in this context that the teacher-counsellor has to operate and part of his or her task is to help define roles and statuses for the adolescent so that he can become a well adjusted member of society.

In Part II of this dissertation the results of the writer's own investigation into the current position of Guidance and Counselling for Whites in the Republic of South Africa are given as follows:

(a) A review of the Guidance and Counselling service in the four provinces of the Republic of South Africa.

(b) A report on Guidance and Counselling in twelve secondary schools in the area known as Greater Durban in the Province of Natal.

(c) An analysis of a Questionnaire distributed to first year students of the University of Natal and first year students of the Natal Technikon, the aim of which was to evaluate the Guidance and Counselling service they had experienced at school.

This is followed by the conclusion to the Study and recommendations made by the writer.

NOTES.

1) This refers to the way adolescents were treated in the nineteenth century, e.g. in England they worked in coal mines and as chimney sweeps.

2) The role of sport, e.g. rugby and cricket in secondary schools in both England and the Republic of South Africa is well known.

3) Adolescents from the lower income groups may regard it as more important to leave school and earn.

4) The beginning of puberty is also variable and does not begin at any specific year (Dreyer 1980; 28).

5) This idea was expressed in a paper entitled *The Management of Knowledge:* a critique of the use of typologies in the Sociology of Education.

6) Max Weber also linked social class with life chances.

7) This report appears in Part II of this work.

8) See Part II - the report on twelve secondary schools in the area known as Greater Durban in the Province of Natal.

9) For a brief account of the physiology of puberty see Appendix C.

10) This view of the difference between adolescence and puberty was also held by Morse and Wingo (1962) cited by Dreyer 1980.

11) This study was cited by Shertzer and Stone in 1971 and was regarded as applicable to American youth in 1971. In a visit to the United States of America in 1978, the writer, discussing the matter with social workers in Baltimore and Maryland, found that Shertzer and Stone's 'work' was still regarded as applicable.

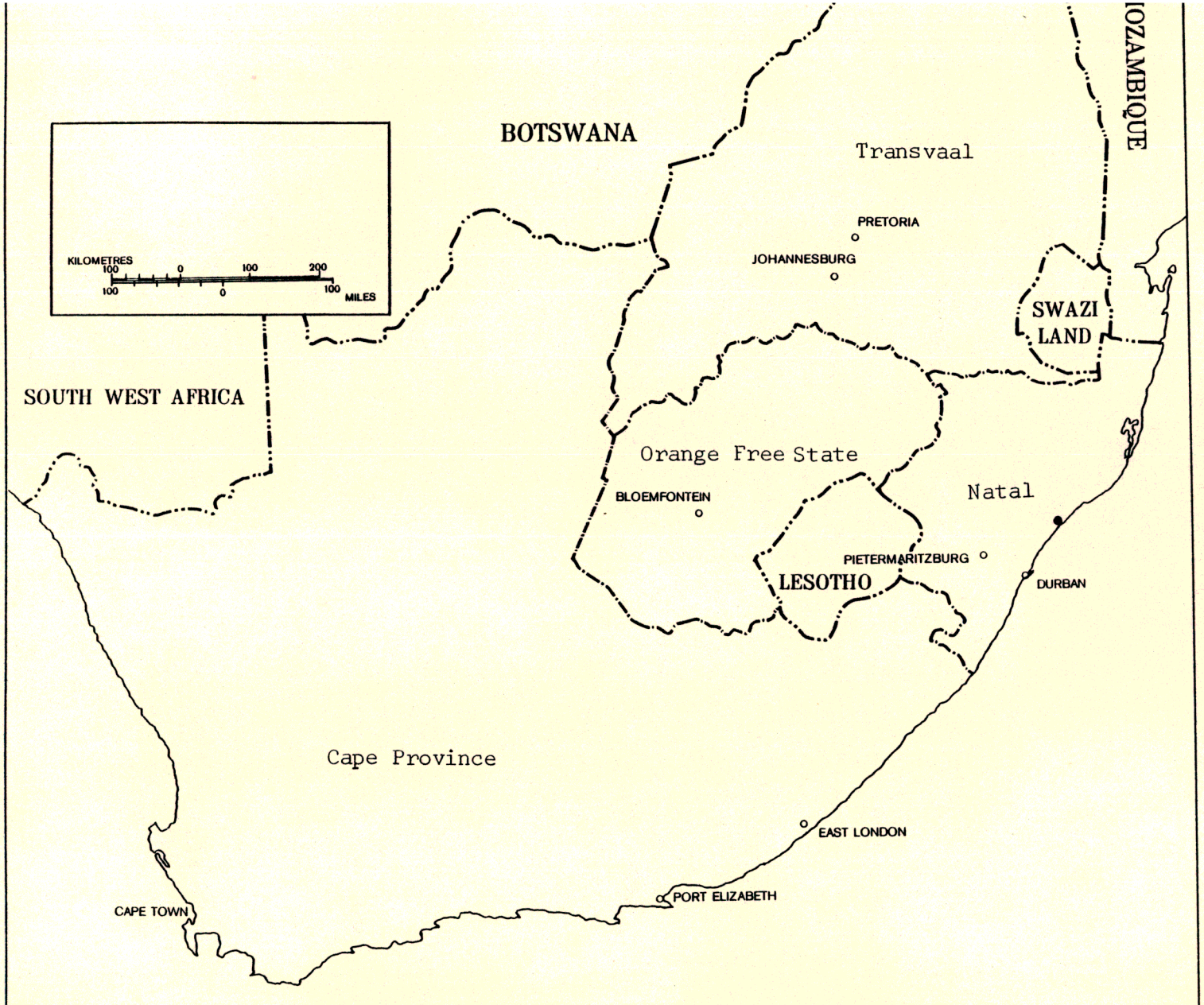
12) Comment is made on the practical class by the writer when giving her recommendations.

13) Some earlier studies are timeless in their applicability and are worthy of mention.

14) This research by Harold Bernard was entitled *Socio-Economic Class and the School Counselor.* It was published in *Theory into Practice,* Vol. 2, February 1963, cited by Shertzer and Stone in *Fundamentals of Guidance* (1971; 15).

15) William T. Jaques' research was entitled *Hastings High School works on the Dropout Problem,* Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 35, September 1956, pp. 39-40, reprinted in *Fundamentals of Guidance* (Shertzer and Stone 1971; 19).

PART II.



Map showing the Four Provinces of the Republic of South Africa

CHAPTER SEVEN.

A SURVEY OF THE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SERVICES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR WHITES IN THE FOUR PROVINCES OF THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA.

Introduction.

In Part I of this dissertation the emergence of a Guidance and Counselling system in secondary schools in the Western world has been discussed in the context of many factors of a changing society. In the United States of America, Great Britain, parts of Europe and the Republic of South Africa, guidance and counselling services in secondary schools have been introduced at different times in the twentieth century. The reason for the service was partly to make the democratization of education a reality. In 1980 the deep-seated reason is to actualize educational potential in order to help pupils cope with technology in an electronic age.

The availability of education to all is fraught with a new danger, that schools tend to become large, anonymous and impersonal. Guidance and Counselling services in secondary schools in some countries were seen as an antidote to the individual becoming anonymous.

The Guidance and Counselling service in the Republic of South Africa is approximately nine years old. The following empirical research is presented in order to assess its progress. This enquiry has been organized as follows:

(1) An enquiry has been made into the position of the service in each of the four provinces of the Republic of South Africa.

(2) A specific investigation has been conducted into twelve secondary schools in the Greater Durban area in order to

gain information on the particular guidance and counselling service offered by each school. This information was obtained by interviews with principals and teacher-counsellor of the respective schools. These interviews were conducted after approaching the Director of Education of Natal for permission which was granted only after the intended research project was explained to, and approved of by the Head of Psychological Services in Natal. It was then that letters were written to the respective principals requesting appointments to interview themselves and the teacher-counsellor/s in the schools. This study was conducted from 1977-1980.

(3) The above study was followed by a questionnaire, to which seven hundred and two first year students of the University of Natal and two hundred and eight first year students of the Natal Technikon replied. The aim of the questionnaire was to ascertain students' views of the Guidance and Counselling service they had each experienced at their secondary schools. The results were analysed in order to evaluate the service, from the point of view of the pupils who had experienced it.

In this way both counsellors and past pupils were interviewed and as a result of their responses, useful insights into possible future developments are suggested in the final chapter of this dissertation in which recommendations are offered. It must be added that apart from this research, the writer's own experience as a teacher-counsellor in a secondary school (1971-1974) made it possible to assess some current practices in Guidance and Counselling from the vantage ground of experience within the field.

7.1 Overall Policy.

The Education Policy for Whites is determined by Act No. 39 of 1967, but each province through its Provincial Education Department develops syllabuses in terms of its own requirements.

The writer made approaches to the Director of Education in the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, the Cape Province and Natal with regard to the Counselling service offered for pupils in secondary schools. The questions asked are given in Appendix C.

A summary of the findings is given in Table I below, and an analysis of the Guidance and Counselling services in the Cape Province, the Orange Free State, the Transvaal and Natal follows. The review of the four provinces ends with a conclusion concerning the findings.

7.2 An analysis of the Guidance Service in the Cape.

7.2.1. In the Cape Province the following information was received from the Department of Education concerning the Guidance and Counselling service.

In order to comply with the Departmental requirements that in Standards six, seven and eight at least (and, where necessary, also in Standards nine and ten), provision of one period per week per class be made for school guidance, the following applies:

7.2.2. Schools with an enrolment above 300 pupils must employ one of more of the posts fully or partially for a teacher psychologist, provided that the teacher(s) filling the post/s has/have the required training; for each period of group guidance, provision of at least two periods must be made for individual guidance and administrative duties.

7.2.3. The remainder of the teacher psychologist's school time should be employed for ordinary teaching. This implies that, at the same school, there could be more than one teacher psychologist who is partially employed in ordinary teaching.

Schools with a secondary enrolement of 300 pupils and below can apply to the Department to employ one of the posts partially for a teacher psychologist on the same basis as mentioned above.

TABLE I.

TABLE REVIEWING THE POSITION OF SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SERVICES IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA.

List of questions submitted to each province	Transvaal	Orange Free State	Cape Province	Natal
1. Please estimate the number of teacher-counsellors in full-time employment in your area?	± 229	5 (1978) 6 (from 1981) 6 school psychologists (travelling) from 1981	149 (1978) 155 (1980)	93 in 76 secondary schools (1980)
2. How many teachers are employed in the schools concerned?	± 9 347	1 649	Not available 1978 Not available 1980	± 6 000
3. Do you consider the provision of teacher-counsellors to be adequate?	Enough teachers not enough qualified counsellors	No, but the department intends to appoint a trained and experienced teacher-counsellor at every school with 400 pupils on a full-time basis in due course	Still room for improvement	Yes, but not all are qualified.
4. What are the minimum qualifications required for teacher-counsellors in your area?	Specialized qualifications in counselling - preferably a degree	B. degree with psychology degree and H.E.D. (guidance and counselling) and three years' teaching experience	A degree or equivalent qualification in Guidance Psychology and a Teacher Diploma/ Certificate	B.A. (Psycho. major) H.E.D. B.Ed. Counselling
5. Could you give some idea of the range of qualifications held by teacher-counsellors? *	Not known	These are teachers who also teach their majors. B. degree with Psycho II and H.E.D. M.A. Psycho or M.Ed.	B.A. H.E.D. to M.A. plus Teacher Certificate	After 4 years of teaching. B.A. H.E.D. (Counselling) desirable, but at first lesse qualifications were accepted
6. Is a syllabus presented for use by teacher-counsellor?	Yes	Yes, as well as guidance books for use by pupils	Yes	The syllabus fo group guidance is merely intended to be a guide. Freedom to deviate. Topics at prese (1980) being revised
7. Does group counselling form a regular part of the counselling service, or is the counselling mainly of individuals?	Group and individual Counselling are both done.	Group guidance is given from Stds. V to X for one period per week. It forms part of time-table, but the heart of our service is individual counselling	Compulsory for Stds. VI, VII and VIII and where necessary for Stds. IX and X	Yes
8. Would it be true to say that in your area, the counselling service operates towards the ends of (a) vocational, (b) personal, and (c) group counselling?	Provides for vocational, personal and educational guidance	Yes, see notes	(d) Individual counselling. Yes	Yes
9. To what extent are teacher-counsellors in your area supervised, e.g. by Inspectors?	Controlled by Inspectors of Education and guided by Departmental counsellors.	Three Inspector-Psychologists based at Bloemfontein, Kroonstad and Bethlehem supervise and control/ organize the guidance work of the schools in their areas and assist guidance teachers	Teacher Psychologists work in close co-operation with and under the supervision of school psychologist	Principal schoo psychologist (guidance) at Inspector level visits school regularly to see guidance is being implemented
10. Could you provide any other information on the policy or operation of the counselling service in your area?	1. T.E.D. Circular Minute 20 of 1978. 2. Included T.E.D. Circular Minute 136 of 1977	Counselling forms an integral part of differentiated education. It goes on during the various school phases up to when they leave school. The Education Department intends to intensify its guidance service to make it more effective	Annexure 7, p.37. Circular No.49/1977 attached. Being completely revised in 1980. Not yet available	At present a new directive is being compiled which will be available from 1981. A great deal of research done to compile this

* New post-graduate courses are beginning in School Counselling from 1981 at the University of Natal and UNISA is also beginning a post-graduate course in School Counselling from 1981.

7.2.4. Comment.

In the Cape school Guidance is not given in Standards nine and ten routinely, but "only where necessary".

Teacher-counsellors work part time as counsellors, since they also do normal teaching.

Concerning the Guidance syllabus.

The Cape Education Department did not comply with the writer's request for a copy of the syllabus used for Guidance and Counselling. They merely stated that a syllabus is presented to teacher-counsellors.[1)]

7.3 The Orange Free State.

7.3.1. The writer's research revealed that the Department of Education has school guidance clinics at Bloemfontein, Welkom, Kroonstad, Bethlehem and Sasolburg.

7.3.2. Clinical and Counselling Psychologists, Psychometrists, Speech Therapists and Remedial Teachers are on the staff of the clinics and in co-operation with the schools are concerned with the following:

scholastic progress;
adjustment;
personal problems; and
vocational needs of the pupils.

Stress is placed on individual counselling. There is no definite syllabus. Constant research and revision of the service is ongoing. The position to date is that

"At the beginning of 1981 there will be six full time

Guidance teachers at schools and six school psychologists (travelling) for Guidance in the service of the Orange Free State". (Source: Director of Education, O.F.S. Department of Education 1980; 11-13)[2)]

7.3.3. From the Table it can be seen that the Orange Free State secondary schools had five teacher-counsellors until 1980 and will have six from 1981 assisted by six travelling psychologists. The eventual aim of the service will be a teacher-counsellor at every secondary school with four hundred pupils, on a full time basis. The appointee must hold a Bachelor's Degree with a Psychology major and three years' teaching experience. At the present time the Department employ as counsellors, teachers who hold a variety of qualifications from a Bachelor's Degree with Psychology II, plus H.E.D,[3)] to a teacher with a Masters in Psychology or a Masters in Education. They claim that their service lays most stress on individual counselling. Group counselling is however given once a week from Standards V to X. This is given in the form of a lesson where 'Guidance Books' are used by pupils.

7.3.4. Three Inspectors-Psychologists are based at Bloemfontein, Kroonstad and Bethlehem. They supervise, organize and control the guidance work in their areas and assist 'Guidance Teachers'.

7.3.5. Counselling is regarded as of great importance in the school system. It forms an integral part of differentiated education. It goes on during the various school phases up to and when pupils leave school.

It is the aim of the Education Department of the Orange Free State to intensify its guidance service and make it more effective.

7.4 Guidance and Counselling in the Transvaal.

7.4.1. The Transvaal Education Department have published a specific syllabus for vocational guidance in secondary schools. In its reply to the questionnaire the writersent, the Transvaal Education Department stated that its counselling service,

> *"provides for vocational, personal and educational guidance".* (Transvaal Education Department 1978)

However, the Transvaal Education Department circular minute 20 of 1978 makes no specific mention of personal counselling. The writer has no information about the average number of cases seen in this regard inaa typical Transvaal secondary school. The only information received was that the two hundred and twenty-nine full time teacher-counsellors spend *"a great deal of time on personal counselling".*

7.4.2. T.E.D. Circular 20 of 1978[4)] specifies a detailed programme for Vocational Guidance in secondary schools. The syllabus is laid down for each class.

> *"The abovementioned programme which is to be implemented from the beginning of this year together with the Guidance programme forwarded to schools under cover of circular minute 136 of 1977, serve as expedient for the staff member responsible for the component Vocational Guidance of the Guidance Programme".* (Source:T.E.D. 1978)

7.4.3. The Guidance programme will be included in the Manual for general school organization, which is forwarded to the schools. It was clear however, that the programme was regarded as advisory and suitable but by no means compulsory. It could be adapted by an individual teacher according to his/her interpretation of the topic. However, the view held could be subject to discussion with the principal or a visiting Departmental Counsellor.

7.4.4. It is stated in Circular 136 of 1977 in respect of Vocational Guidance:

"2.2.3.1. Staff members responsible. The head of department: educational guidance or other staff member appointed by the principal.

2.2.3.2. Functions of the staff members responsible for the component.

(a) Guides pupils with regard to fields of study, subject sets, compulsory and optional subjects, possibilities of changing over as implemented in the school.

(b) Guides pupils in class or group relation with regard to:

(i) self evaluation.

(ii) the principles on which a choice of a vocation is founded.

(iii) vocational orientation.

(iv) national circumstances and needs as a factor in the choice of a vocation.

(v) other aspects indicated in the official scheme of work.

(c) Has personal interviews with pupils and their parents where necessary.

(d) Calls for assistance of the psychological and guidance service with regard to individual pupils through the mediation of the principal.

(e) Collects literature and information on all aspects of vocations, arranges and keeps these up to date, and makes it conveniently accessible to pupils.

(f) Advises school leavers in connection with their choice of a vocation or their further training or studies".

7.4.5. See Appendix E for Transvaal's instruction re Moral preparedness and other topics (pp. 17,18,19,20) of *Circular Minute 136 of 1977.*

7.4.6. Comment.

The interpretation of these instructions would vary according to the outlook of the teacher-counsellor. Indoctrination could be a factor to guard against where a teacher held a particular outlook or view. Counsellors should, surely, not be partisans of political ideologies in institutions of education. "Open-minded" views on all topics should be encouraged in the hope that appropriate moral values will emerge from group discussion. It is the writer's belief that in order to criticize a counselling service, at least a year would need to be spent working in the service, so that first hand information and experience can be obtained. The present intention of the writer was merely to obtain a statement of policy and facilities provided in the provinces of the Republic of South Africa. This is not a critical evaluation of the service, as actual circumstances may or may not match policy closely. (See Table I.)

7.5 The Guidance and Counselling Service in Natal.

7.5.1. The service in Natal began in 1944 when the Natal Education Department appointed its first departmental psychologist, Dr. C.W. Wright. The service rendered by him and other early pioneers was unspecialized in scope. Not only did he and his staff administer intelligence tests in the schools, but they also gave educational and vocational guidance when needed. "Guidance" was given on individual problems on occasions. In the early fifties time was put aside for specific teachers to give vocational guidance. Senior members of staff, who had expressed an interest in this work were allocated these duties in an informal manner. The new phase in the development of Guidance and Counselling in Natal schools occurred after Act No. 39 of 1967, Section 2 (1) f. laid down that education

> *"must be provided in accordance with the ability and aptitude of and interest shown by the pupil and the needs of the country".*

7.5.2. This involved an appropriate system of guidance for the benefit of all pupils. In fact as has already been indicated,

"Guidance is the corner-stone of differentiated education". (Malherbe 1977; 323)

The breakthrough came as a result of this legislation and the recommendations of the Human Sciences Research Council report of the committee for differentiated education and guidance which recommended school guidance as an integral service of the system of education for the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa..[5)] This new phase of the service began in 1971 as a result of the report of the committee which recommended that Guidance and Counselling services become an integral part of the educational system in the Republic of South Africa.

7.5.3. The present head of psychological services of Natal, Dr. Cloete, regards

"the Guidance and Counselling service as essential for the implementation of differentiated education as required by Act No. 39 of 1967". (October 1980)

7.5.4. The new, more intensified, service had difficulties in the beginning. The question of finding suitably qualified persons to staff the service was a problem. In 1974, Natal appointed a Head of Psychological and Guidance services, two assistant Heads, eleven school psychologists, eight speech therapists, thirty-five remedial teachers and various guidance clinics. Apart from the above, guidance officers operating from the headquarters at Pietermaritzburg and the various areas, posts were created for 'Guidance Teachers' to be attached to secondary schools. In Natal the ideal was one guidance or teacher-counsellor to every three hundred pupils in the secondary schools. The basic qualification in 1974 for all these posts was at least a Degree with Psychology or Guidance Psychology as a major. However in 1980, now that training facilities are available at the University of Natal, both in Durban and in Pietermaritzburg, in the Higher Education Diploma

post graduate course and as a part of the Bachelor of Education, more graduates have qualified as counsellors. The problem of staffing the schools with qualified school-counsellors has become less acute in Natal.

7.5.5. According to information obtained[6] from the Head of Psychological services, Dr. Cloete and Mr. W.J. Landman (Chief Planner of Academic Projects) the following figures are valid for secondary schools in Natal in November 1980.

The Secondary school population for Natal is	37 455
The Number of Teachers in secondary schools in Natal is	2 599
The number of Secondary Schools in Natal is	76
The number of Teacher-Counsellors in the secondary schools are	93

The range of qualifications of these counsellors is from B.A., H.E.D. (Guidance) to B.Ed. (Guidance) and a percentage are "in training" with the University of South Africa.

7.5.6. Attitudes of the Staff to Teacher-Counsellors.

In the beginning, some principals felt displaced by specialist teacher-counsellors. There was not enough understanding as to their role in the school. In secondary schools in Natal teachers are gradually becoming used to the idea of a teacher-counsellor on the staff and realize that in no way does he or she usurp the position of the principal. In fact, one of the functions of the teacher-counsellor is to educate the staff into realizing that it is desirable for every member of staff to be cognisant of the needs of the individual pupil. In this way teachers can refer pupils to the teacher-counsellor for specific counselling so that his or her problems can receive attention. The average school teacher has not the time or the training to do this. It is emphasized in Natal schools that an observant teacher is essential if all those who require help are to receive it during their sojourn

in the secondary school.

7.5.7. In the Natal Guidance and Counselling service auxiliary services exist which the teacher-counsellor can use to assist the pupil. There are remedial teaching services, medical and psychological services. A teacher-counsellor who is concerned about a pupil's problem, and who feels the need to consult a colleague, can do so by completing a form, and the psychologist will call at the school and assess the pupil. This pupil can then be referred to the nearest psychological clinic for further treatment (intervention). The problem is that at times there is a considerable delay.

7.5.8. In 1971/72 teacher-counsellors were given a directive for Guidance and Counselling (see Appendix F for its page of contents). This was intended as an aid to teacher-counsellors. It was regarded by some as "laying down the law", but many found it useful and informative.

7.5.9. At the time of writing, according to the Head of Psychological Services for Natal a new booklet is being prepared for teacher-counsellors. This is a revised and improved edition. It has been compiled after much research into secondary schools. It contains suggestions for topics for group counselling classes. The Head of Psychological Services, Dr. Cloete emphasized however,

> *"that these topics are a mere guide to the teacher-counsellor".* (November 1980)

He stated that teachers are free to deviate from these topics if they find this expedient. This revised booklet will be offered in 1981.

7.5.9.1. There have also been administrative changes. The Assistant Head of Guidance and Counselling is now known as the Principal School Psychologist (Guidance). His post is at inspector

level. His function is to visit each school at regular intervals to assist teacher-counsellors with the implementation of Guidance and Counselling in each of the seventy-six secondary schools. His aim is to act in an advisory capacity and not as a critic of the teacher-counsellor.

7.5.9.2. The service in Natal aims at the following objectives. The teacher-counsellors should administer educational guidance, i.e. testing, which involves IQ and Interest and Aptitude Testing, from Std. VI to Std. X. Vocational counselling should be administered through group counselling and individual counselling. The individual problems of pupils should be dealt with through the personal counselling of individuals who have problems. Special permission must be obtained from the class teacher to go to the teacher-counsellor for an interview. Appointments are made unless the case is urgent, then the matter is given immediate attention.

7.5.9.3. Teacher-counsellors are urged to use group counselling as a platform for pointing out the fact that individuals who come for counselling can feel assured that their problems will be treated as confidential. Teacher-counsellors in Natal have access to films on vocations and health education which, can be ordered by the Librarian who heads the resource-centre of the school. These are an invaluable means of educating adolescents.

7.5.9.4. All in all the counselling service offered in Natal is comprehensive. Its efficiency rests with the individual teacher-counsellor and the use he/she makes of the amenities and services that are provided by the Natal Education Department through its Psychological and Guidance service headquarters.

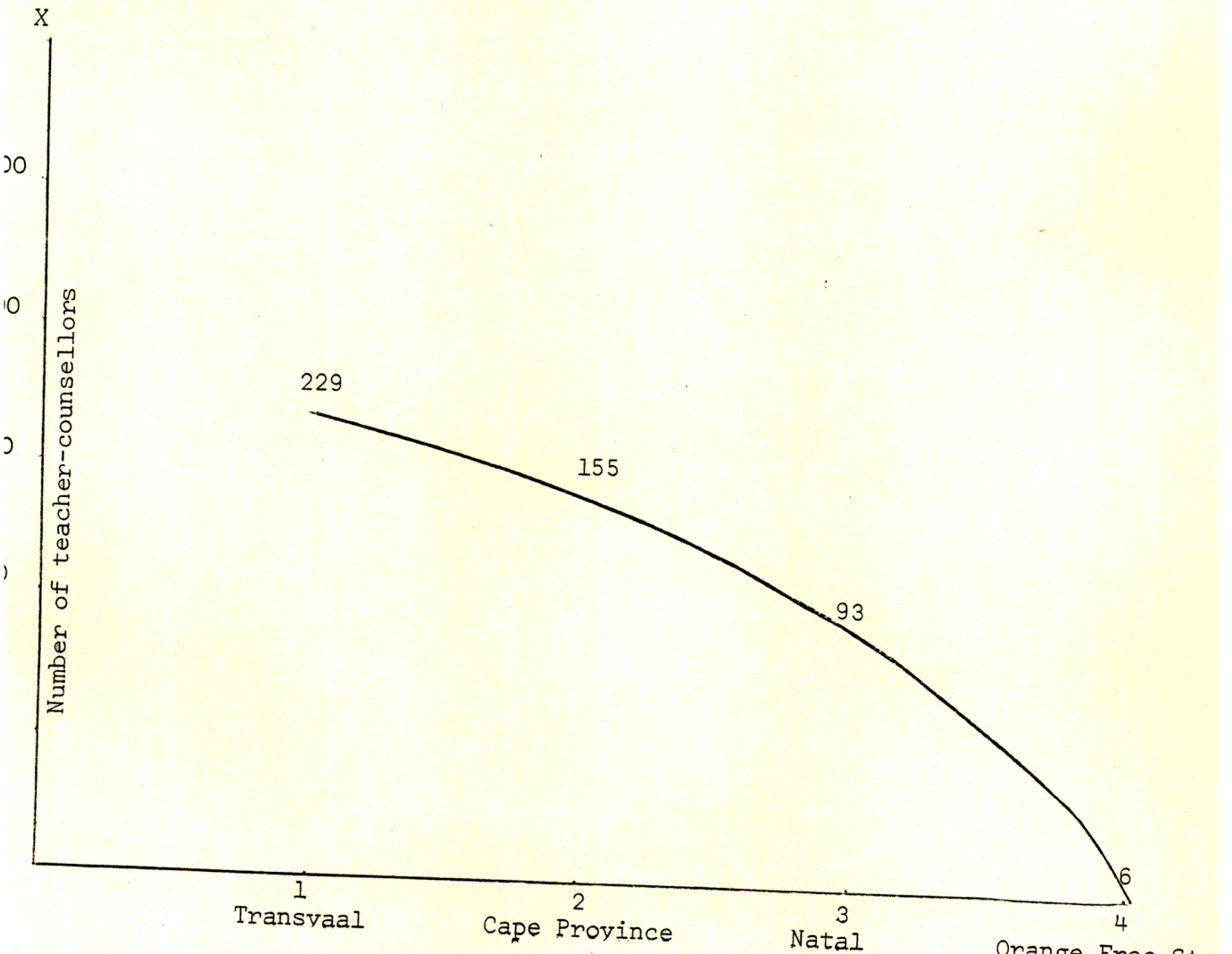
7.10 Conclusion.

The Counselling Service in the Republic of South Africa in its latest phase is approximately ten years old. The issue of guidance as a whole school concept has emerged as a result of the

introduction of Differentiated Education as laid down by Act 39, 1967. The tensions of the educational changes of recent years have begun to fade and a certain degree of stability has returned to the school system since the changes introduced into White education in the Republic of South Africa since 1967.[7)]

The earlier, somewhat critical and cynical attitudes to the introduction of promoted posts in guidance are gradually disappearing as regular patterns of guidance activities find an accepted place in the school system. However, it must be understood that in order for the service to operate successfully as a helping process, the whole school staff, and not only the guidance staff, must be cognisant of the fact that there is a helping process going on for all pupils in the school. The traditional pastoral role of the teacher - a role which many teachers mistakenly felt had been usurped by the holders of the new guidance posts - must continue if counselling in secondary school is to succeed. In fact the emergence of specialist counsellors should make the teacher more cognisant of his/her responsibility to the individual pupil than ever before.

DISTRIBUTION CURVE OF TEACHER-COUNSELLORS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR WHITES IN THE FOUR PROVINCES IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA IN 1980 AND 1981.



Let 1 - 4 = The four Provinces (scale 4 cm. apart).
Let 0 - X = The number of teacher-counsellors (scale 2 cm - 50).

The number of teacher-counsellors in the Transvaal =	229
The number of teacher-counsellors in the Cape Province =	155
The number of teacher-counsellors in Natal =	93
The number of teacher-counsellors in the Orange Free State =	6
The total number of teacher-counsellors in the Republic of South Africa.	483

NOTES.

1) In a telephonic communication, Dr. Reynecke, Head of Psychological Services (October 1980), stated that the syllabus for counselling was presently being revised, but is not yet available. They had no definite syllabus prior to this and group counselling topics were selected according to the judgement of the individual counsellor. The new syllabus would come into effect from 1981 and would act as *"a guide to counselling staff"*. The usage of it would not be compulsory.

2) See Appendix for an account of the Service.

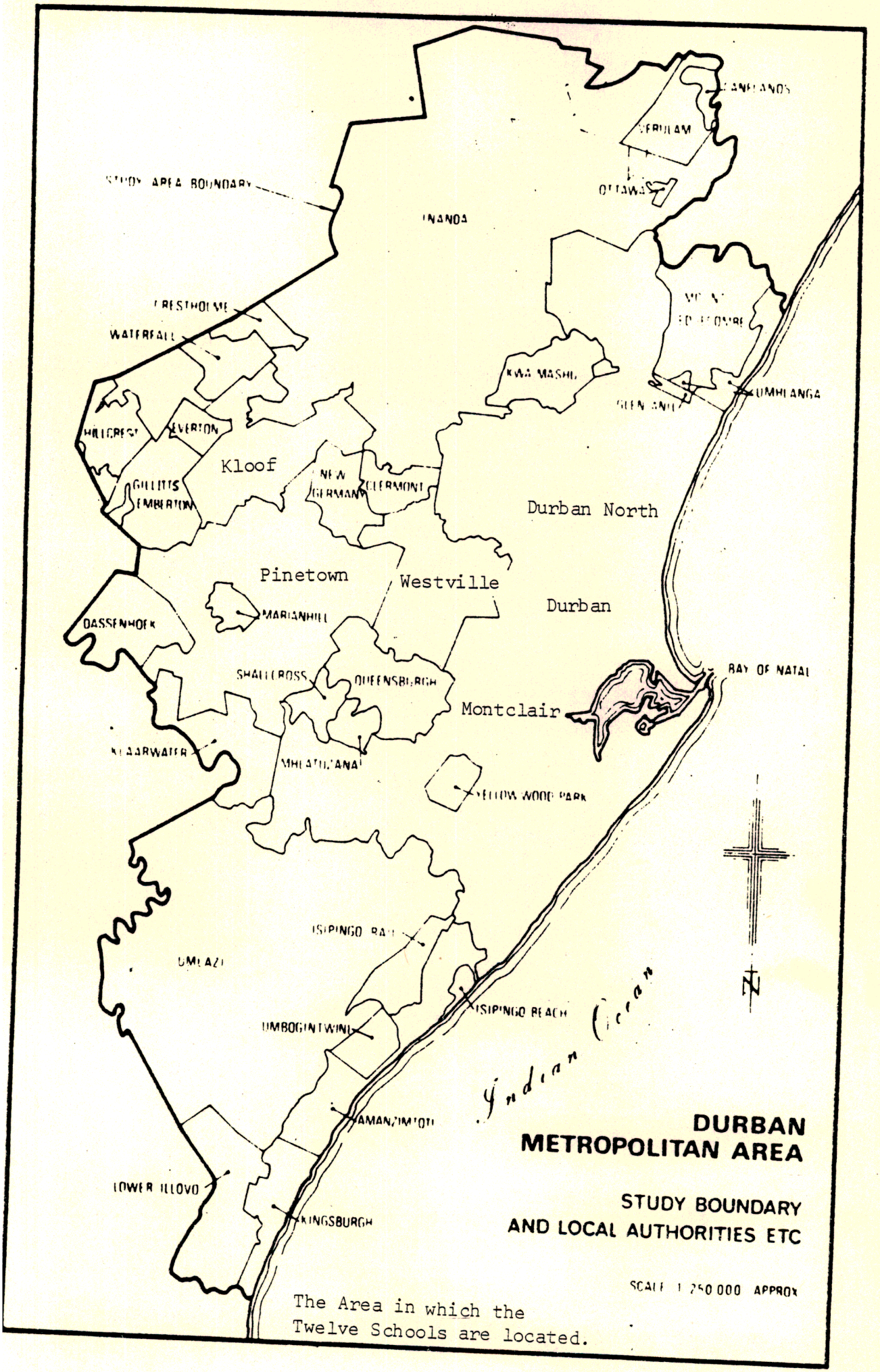
3) H.E.D. = Higher Education Diploma.

4) T.E.D. is the abbreviation for the Transvaal Education Department.

5) Reference to White education only.

6) Information obtained in November 1980 from Dr. Cloete and Mr. Landman personally.

7) The writer is aware of the resignations of teachers in the Transvaal due to dissatisfaction over salary scales, a problem which the authorities are trying to solve at the time of writing this dissertation (November 1980).



The Area in which the Twelve Schools are located.

1 1 3

FIGURE

CHAPTER EIGHT.

A REPORT ON GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING IN TWELVE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE AREA KNOWN AS GREATER DURBAN IN THE PROVINCE OF NATAL AND THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO FIRST YEAR STUDENTS.

8.1 Introduction.

In this dissertation a detailed study was made of twelve secondary schools for Whites in the Greater Durban area. The names of the schools are not identified. A report on these schools is now presented. This will be followed by a discussion on the questionnaire, details of which were explained earlier in Chapter Seven.

The problem in evaluating a guidance and counselling service is the complex array of variables that impinge on counselling activities. The task of the researcher is to describe as accurately as possible the important variables and table these for clarity, where possible.

It should be noted that these reports are not intended to be uniform. Each school counsellor was interviewed at his or her school. Each used a different reply technique to questions asked by the writer, and therefore although the same questions were asked (see Appendix G) each interview varied. Therefore the interviews are reported as they developed in each case. The writer decided not to use a tape recorder as this may have led to reticence and an artificial atmosphere or even possible resentment. The writer therefore used the well-tried technique of note-taking, listening carefully and 'writing up' the interview immediately.

8.1.1. The following is a breakdown of the kinds of schools surveyed:

	Number
A = Girls' Secondary schools	3
B = Boys' Secondary schools	6
C = Co-educational Secondary schools	2
D = Private Secondary schools which are co-educational	2

8.2 School A.1.

8.2.1. Area in which the School is Situated.

This secondary school for girls is situated in a residential area approximately ten miles west of the city centre, which is part of the metropolitan area known as Greater Durban. The area however has its own municipality despite its proximity to the main city.

Although the school is opposite a shopping complex, the area is characterized by single unit homes in their own grounds. Only very few flats are available in the fifteen square mile area. There are no factories or industries in the area.

8.2.2. The Socio-economic Status of the Area is upper middle class.

8.2.3. Precincts and Environment and General Resources.

The school is set in well kept pleasant gardens with extensive playing fields. The main sporting activities are catered for by tennis courts, hockey fields and there is also a large swimming pool.

8.2.4. Comment on School Buildings.

The school buildings are brick under tile. They are of modern design. New types of materials have been used for floors, ceilings and lighting. The decor is distinctly feminine. This has

been expressed in the use of curtaining fabrics and flower arrangements in the foyer, hall and administrative offices. Extra comforts and amenities are provided by an active Parents' Association.

There is an excellent school library, which the pupils are encouraged to use as a viable source of information and knowledge. This is an excellent basis for the growth and development of good reading habits, for learning and for pleasure.

8.2.5. School Population and Staff Complement.

The population of nine hundred and thirty-three pupils is served by a staff of fifty-six including administrative staff. There are two teacher-counsellors. One deals with Stds. VI and VII. The other deals with Stds.VII, XI and X.

8.2.6. The Relationship of the Counsellors to Headmistress and Staff.

The functions of the teacher-counsellors are regarded as of major importance by a sympathetic and co-operative headmistress. She fully realizes the value of the counselling service to assist pupils to obtain maximum benefit from the curriculum offered at the school.

The headmistress is prepared to delegate authority to the teacher-counsellors and permit them to interview parents when required. In many cases however, she interviews parents herself and then consults with the counsellors concerning the problem. The staff have been educated by her to value the counselling service and to refer any unhappy or under-achieving girl to the counsellors, so that they can endeavour to deal with the problem.

8.2.7. The Academic Qualifications and Experience of the Counsellors.

Both counsellors have university degrees. The first holds a B.A. (Social Science) U.E.D.[1] The second a B.A. B.Ed. (Counselling)

but has had no real experience in counselling.

8.2.8. The Nature of the Problems of the Pupils Interviewed.

Drug taking is not a problem at all in this school. Truancy is unknown. Economic difficulties[2] were on the upsurge in a small percentage of parents due to:

(1) Retrenchment from large firms.

(2) Sudden business collapse due to general economic conditions within the country. The majority live in comfortable homes *"with enough money around"*.

Health problems. Counsellors were both aware that personality and behaviour problems could be linked with a health problem, e.g. poor hearing; deficient eye-sight, speech difficulties or other causes. Both counsellors advise medical check-ups before labelling the cause of the problem as psychological. They had dealt with cases from the whole gamut of social pathology. They had seen adolescents who had been disturbed as a result of the following socially pathological conditions:

Divorce
Separation of parents
Death
Illness
Unemployment
Alcoholism
Parental promiscuity
Absence of parents, particularly the father due to business interests overseas - they had found this to be an unsettling factor for adolescent girls.

They had dealt with problems in the relationships between:
Pupil and Pupil
Teacher and pupil
Between parents and adopted children

Educational difficulties. The counsellors stated that these do occur and found that they were due to a variety of causes.

(1) A gifted child may be in too low a class.

(2) A backward child may be struggling in too advanced a class.

(3) There may be genuine difficulties in an individual subject.

(4) These counsellors regard I.Q.[3] as a diagnostic tool rather than a cause for under-achieving. The whole situation namely family background, personality, health factors, emotional upsets are accepted as possible causes for under-achieving. An emotionally disturbed adolescent who is unhappy because the parents are busy with divorce proceedings could be under-achieving, due to a situation which is unrelated to basic ability.

Both counsellors found that a percentage of parents were what they termed *"pushing parents"*. They drove their children to achieve. This often had the reverse effect. The pupils did not do as well as they would do if allowed to progress without pressure. They agreed that this was a middle class phenomenon. Such parents were counselled accordingly. Some parents improved with others there was no success.

8.2.9. Group Counselling.

Both counsellors found group counselling useful. It gave them an opportunity to deal with the problems facing adolescent women. They reported that lectures were given on the physiology of menstruation and of child-bearing. The Marriage Guidance Society visit the school and give lectures in this sphere. Questions on contraceptive devices, pregnancy and venereal disease are answered, if asked. Both counsellors stated that at times they have to deal with the relationship between boys and girls. They found group counselling a useful method of dealing with development and maturation. Pregnancy had occurred in the school, but no figures were available.

In group counselling advice is also given on study methods in order to obtain satisfactory examination results.

8.2.10. Choice of Courses.

Another important function of the counsellor dealing with Std. VII is to help them select a curriculum of study for Stds. VIII, XI and X, which will best suit the career of their choice. If they are uncertain of this, "a subject package" is offered which will not limit their future choice of career should they elect to go to university.

8.2.10.1. Vocational Guidance.

This covers information on a variety of professions and trades open to women, e.g. hairdressing; modelling; medicine, dentistry; dental nurse; dental hygienist; nursing; teaching; social work; acting; commercial art; dress designing. A course of study on being an air hostess, physiotherapist, occupational therapist or pharmacist. Medical technology is a popular choice. Careers in the bank or secretarial careers are also popular.

Files containing information on the above careers were available. Talks were arranged by experts in their respective fields. Films were shown when available and applicable.

8.2.10.2. Attitudes to Aptitude, Interest and Intelligence Tests.

These tests were used, but were not highly regarded. At all costs they avoid "labelling" a pupil as a result of her I.Q. Test score. They found marking these tests was very time consuming. There was a possibility that these tests results would be analysed by a computer in the future.

8.2.11. Referral of Serious Problems.

These counsellors were unanimous in their decision that they preferred not to refer pupils with serious emotional problems to the departmental psychological service. They maintained that the department officials were purely analytical in their approach and not therapeutic. They preferred to use the following alternatives:

(1) The Assessment Centre for Educational Problems.
(2) The Meyrick Bennett Centre for emotional problems.
(3) The counsellors did not use private psychiatrists except in the case of an adolescent girl with the condition known as Anorexia Nervosa. The mother was so concerned about her daughter's weight loss that she contacted a private psychiatrist who contacted the counsellor concerning this pupil. She made good progress and eventually was cured.

8.2.12. Report sent to the Writer on the Counselling done from January - June 1977.

Number of Interviews: There were one hundred and twelve personal interviews each lasting for approximately forty minutes. These interviews involved sixty-two pupils. In addition seventeen parents were interviewed. There were also seven telephonic interviews with parents.

Direct approach for help came from sixty-five pupils including twenty-three 'matric' pupils[4)] concerning their choice of career.

There were no referrals to psychological services, but there was one referred to child welfare for their attention to the home circumstances of a pupil. This girl was placed in a foster home.

The Nature of the Problems of the Pupils were as follows:

Personal Problems: Lack of confidence and shyness; problems concerning boy friends; depression and anxiety about examinations. Problems in the home: working mother who expected too much from her daughter, e.g. cooking. Another problem encountered was the problem of the threatening divorce of parents which caused a great deal of anxiety to the pupil concerned.

8.2.13. Comment.

Both teacher-counsellors agreed that taking cognisance of the individual and her home environment and regarding her problem as significant was essential for progress in the school system. They both were of opinion that a counselling service was essential in contemporary society. These counsellors, having the full support of an understanding headmistress, did their best to deal with the problems of adolescent women in the school environment. See Table II.

8.3 School A.2.

8.3.1. Area in which the School is Situated.

This school A.2 is situated in the Durban metropolitan area, approximately thirty kilometres west of the main city. It is in a part of the metropolitan area which has changed markedly from semi-rural to urban and industrial in character. This change has occurred in the past two decades. This has led to a rapid growth in the population. Skilled artisans have come to this area from many parts of the Republic and overseas. This school was the original "High School" of the area, but due to population growth, it became a secondary school for girls from January 1978.

8.3.2. Precincts and Environment and General Resources.

The school is situated off a busy highway, but nevertheless has extensive playing fields. The building is not new but is in a satisfactory state of repair. Its character and environs are more than of a boys' school than a purely girls' secondary school. These are mere superficialities which will change in time. The usual resources of a Natal Provincial secondary school are present - a large school hall, a good library and resource centre and satisfactory amenities for sport. It does not however have the generous financial support for extras that was present as a result of the Parent-Teacher Association of School A.

8.3.3. School Population and Staff Complement.

The population of six hundred pupils is served by a staff of forty teachers and administrative personnel. There is one teacher-counsellor to deal with the whole school. The standards range from VI to X.

8.3.4. The Relationship of the Teacher-Counsellor to the Headmistress and Staff.

There is an excellent relationship between the headmistress and the teacher-counsellor. The headmistress values the presence of the teacher-counsellor. She has transmitted this opinion to the staff who regard her similarly. They regard the establishment of the Guidance and Counselling service as an integral part of the educational system. The counsellor has her own office and is comfortably housed.

8.3.5. The Academic Qualifications and Experience of the Teacher-Counsellor.

The teacher-counsellor holds the degree of B.A. U.E.D. plus a B.Ed. (Counselling). She is young, approximately twenty-eight years of age. She was recently married and is worried because she

has had little experience in counselling on personal and family problems.

8.3.6. The Teacher-Counsellor's Duties in School A.2.

In this school the teacher-counsellor does no teaching. This enables her to spend time on the various tests which are given routinely, e.g. I.Q. Test; Aptitude and Interest Tests. She finds that a great deal of her time is taken up by administrative work.

The counsellor for school A.2 sees on an average of six pupils a day for counselling in either vocational or personal problems. She sees parents whenever possible and interviews parents after school hours if necessary. This counsellor seldom refers cases to psychological services. She maintains contact with other teacher-counsellors at teacher-counsellor meetings. She would welcome an experienced visiting counsellor with whom she could discuss cases.

8.3.7. The Nature of the Problems of the Pupils Interviewed.

These vary from day to day. The socio-economic strata of the school is both middle and lower middle class. The problems encountered were as follows:

Drug-taking - Nil.

Alcohol: This may be taken by a small percentage of adolescent women trying "to grow up too fast". It however has not in any instance manifested itself as "a drinking problem".

Truancy is unknown. Girls however may absent themselves from school for legitimate reasons, not due to personal illness, but rather to assist the family.

Economic Difficulties: These are considerable. Many girls in this school come from homes which are plagued by an insufficient income to meet the basic needs of the family. The parents struggle to feed, clothe and house their families adequately.

The counsellor cited the case of a girl who comes from a family where there are five children. Ages range from seven - sixteen years. The monthly income is R375,00. This cannot cater for any outside interests. A magazine, even a newspaper is a luxury. This leads to cultural deprivation. The counsellor found that the pupil from this troubled home did not achieve well and her parents eagerly awaited the day when their daughter "could leave school and earn".

Health Problems: Both the counsellor and the principal were aware of the positive correlation between poor health and behaviour and achievement. The visit of the school doctor is not regarded as "a nuisance", but an opportunity to discuss pupils with him and refer them for further examination and investigation, where indicated.

Social Pathology: The counsellor from this school found she repeatedly dealt with adolescent girls who were affected by the behaviour of their parents. There was death of a parent, promiscuous behaviour of parents which led to divorce. Divorce for other reasons; illness of parents (including mental illness) were all factors that she found affected the achievement and happiness of the secondary school pupil in this school. These girls appreciated her counselling efforts and thanked her repeatedly "for your help, Miss".

This teacher-counsellor felt concerned because she was aware that not all girls with problems came forward for counselling. She felt that although for many she could not change the situation, she could "share the burden" albeit for a brief half-an-hour. She knew, she said that this was psychologically therapeutic. The catharsis of "telling about the trouble" helped to re-establish the pupil's equilibrium. In some cases practical suggestions or referral to the local social work agency could help to ease the tension in the home situation.

Educational Problems: The counsellor found that cultural deprivation in this school could be confused with intellectual retardation caused by other factors. This must be remembered before condemning a pupil to practical classes or special schools. Sensible attitudes to I.Q. Tests were held by the counsellor and the principal.

Comment.

Intelligence, like stature, is in large part a biologically determined trait which is genetically transmitted from parents to children. Environment, however, can play havoc with excellent basic intelligence leading to cultural deprivation.

Case Study.

Economic problems in the home can cause a disturbance in the inter-personal relationships of pupils. The counsellor cited the following example.

Two senior girls 'literally' came to blows with one another. The teacher-counsellor found the cause to be as follows. Pupil X, a mutual friend of both pupils Y and Z was leaving the school. Pupil Y suggested the class collect a sum of money with which to purchase a gift for this girl. Pupil Z who came from a very poor home did not bring her contribution. Pupil Y thought she had been forgetful and admonished her. Pupil Z reacted violently since she had not slept all night wondering what excuse she could make concerning the fact, that she had no money to contribute. The teacher-counsellor explained the position to Pupil Y and this later led to a group counselling class on variations in parental income and the need for tact in dealing with people, when asking for money. The two girls became firm friends and in fact the one from the more affluent home was helpful to Pupil Z in the future.

This case points to the difficulties a pupil from a family in a lower economic bracket, can have "keeping up" with pupils from more affluent homes. Teacher-counsellors need to be alert to these difficulties of pupils. The value of group counselling in drawing attention to problems of this nature is self evident.

Group Counselling.

The counsellor reported that this was used as a platform to invite pupils to come for personal counselling, if they needed it. Topics for discussion were often taken from problems presented by a pupil that the counsellor judged to be of general concern. For example, (1) Economic problems in the home and their effect on the school pupil; (2) Inter-relationships: "You and your Friend"; (3) Understanding the position of others; and (4) Study methods and adolescent development were other topics discussed. A technique used to encourage questions was to ask the class to write out on a piece of paper any questions they wished to ask. No names were given. The teacher-counsellor would collect them and deal with each in turn in the next discussion group. By using this method sensitive queries could be dealt with in an objective manner.

Vocational Guidance.

In this school, vocational guidance is given to the "matric class" only. I.Q. Testing is done in Std. VII prior to making the choice of subjects to be studied in Standards VIII, XI and X. I.Q. is regarded as a diagnostic tool rather than a cause for under-achieving. The whole gamut of possible causes for a reduced I.Q. are considered by this teacher-counsellor. It may be due to emotional upset resulting from family problems. It could be due to inherent cultural deprivation. It could be due to nervousness while being tested. This counsellor remarked that the I.Q. Test itself is not infallible. The counsellor prefers the staff not to have access to I.Q. results, lest this should prejudice their attitude towards the pupil's ability.

Interest and aptitude tests are given but also regarded with reservation. This counsellor is of opinion that the individual herself is more likely to reveal her interests than the test results reveal. In some cases however there is a positive connection between the test results and the interests of the individual.

Vocational Guidance for Std. X was given on a regular basis. Individuals were interviewed and information was given about the various professions and occupations. This counsellor was aware of the fact that more vocational counselling was necessary in the school. As yet she had not shown films but hoped to do this in the future.

Conclusion.

The counsellor of this school felt that the responsibilities of a teacher-counsellor were immense. Professional training was theoretical but an essential background. "This is a job in which you learn new techniques daily". The value of Guidance and Counselling was regarded as immeasurable in its contribution to education.

B = Boys' High Schools.
The Teacher-Counsellors of Six Boys' High School were Interviewed.

The teacher-counsellors of six boys' high school were interviewed. The following information resulted.

In School B.1.
Buildings and grounds were well maintained.
Location - approximately ten miles from the city centre and within five kilometres of the beaches.
Area Description. Residential.
Population stratum. Middle-class and lower middle class.
School Population. Seven hundred and forty-eight.
Teacher-Counsellor: One female.
Teacher Counsellor's Qualifications and Experience: Natal Teacher's senior diploma (Pietermaritzburg, Natal). Taught religious education and English. She was in the process of completing a Social Science Degree with University of South Africa, in which she majored in Sociology and Psychology and did one course in Social Anthropology. She was busy with the last two subjects for

the completion of the degree,Philosophy I and History I. She had no teacher's diploma and no counselling experience at all.

The Position of the Counselling Service in the School.

The teacher-counsellor maintained that the counselling department was in a chaotic state when she became the teacher-counsellor. No files were kept and inadequate information was available for the vocational guidance programme.

The position at present: Apart from being the only counsellor, she teaches English to the practical class for six periods a week.

Group Guidance: This counsellor does mainly group counselling. In group counselling she teaches the following:

1. Study Methods.
2. Self-image.
3. Weakness and strength of people.
4. Fears we all have.

These lessons relate to occurrences in the school. If there is a spate of violence, she discusses "bullying and violence" in a general way. This leads to discussion and she feels this method of indirect counselling is of great value to pupils.

Individual Counselling: She stated that with all the practical administrative work, as a result of testing, e.g. I.Q. Testing; interest and aptitude testing, she had little time for personal counselling. In addition to these tasks, she is responsible for maintaining the medical cards of each pupil. All these administrative duties are time consuming and leaves little time for personal counselling. She, in any case, did not feel trained to do personal counselling.

Vocational Counselling: There were no files on the various occupations and professions. She was trying to collect and collate information in this regard.

She was involved in arranging Leadership Courses and vocation guidance forums with Rotary and other organizations. She does hold individual interviews with regard to vocational guidance.

In respect of emotional problems and problems due to family pathology as also educational problems, she has observed that these difficulties are usually brought to her notice.

1. If the boy is under-achieving.
2. If a boy is 'a nuisance' in class, through bad behaviour.
3. If he cannot play his role at sport. (This was a very rugby and sport orientated school.)

Drugs are not a problem. Reports of boys over-indulging in alcohol are not uncommon. This teacher-counsellor keeps no records but a *Circumstances Book* where she records the particular circumstances of particular boys and their families. This record is confidential.

Record of Interviews from January - June 1977.

Private Interviews: Approximately 60 boys were interviewed during this period.
Thirty on Vocational guidance.
Thirty on scholastic problems as a result of the Record Tests.

Only five boys approached the teacher-counsellor directly for help concerning their personal problems in the period from January - June 1977. Fifteen adolescents were referred by the principal to psychological services for further intervention. The teacher-counsellor was not consulted.

Parental Interviews are not routine. She avoids these interviews and has only seen two parents in cases of under-achieving. "I did not dig deep into it and dealt with the mark aspect".

Nature of the Problems: She realized that the problems of adolescents at the school were due to a combination of factors - home environment, health, educational difficulties, inter-personal relationships between pupil and pupil and between teacher and pupil. Economic factors had been a problem in some homes in the area, where unemployment had been a factor.

Findings:[5)]

In School B.1.

1. The teacher-counsellor is a highly intelligent pleasant person.
2. The teacher-counsellor is uncertain of herself concerning counselling emotional and personal problems.
3. She is not confident enough to interview parents.
4. She handles emotional problems in a general way through group counselling classes.
5. She would like to be able to discuss cases with a more experienced teacher-counsellor and would then be able to cope herself, without referring these cases to psychological services.
6. The relationship between the principal and the teacher-counsellor is not satisfactory. He does not consult her or discuss problems with her or regard her opinions as valuable.
7. In a school with a population of seven hundred and forty-eight adolescents boys, five interviews for personal problems shows that the counselling service is a fledgling one. Considering her inexperience and the attitude of the principal to teacher-counsellor, she has done well.

School B.2.

Buildings and Grounds: Well designed and maintained. Strong parent association support for extra facilities.
Location: Ten kilometres from the city centre.
Area Description: Residential.
School Population: Seven hundred.

Staff Number: Fifty-two.
Principal's Attitude to Counselling: Supportive.
Teacher-Counsellor: One male.
Qualifications of Teacher-Counsellor: N.T.S.D.[6] He is doing Psychology II by correspondence towards a B.A. degree. He has had no counselling experience at all. This being the case, "I rely on psychological services entirely". His own description of the counselling position as he is able to fulfill it is as follows: "At present I feel like an administrative clerk. I find the marking the interest, aptitude and I.Q. tests very time-consuming".

His main work in the field of counselling is group counselling and the administration and marking of test scores. He never interviews parents as he has had no experience concerning the personal problems of adolescents. He does no vocational guidance at all. He does not feel that there is any drug problem in the school. Alcoholic indulgence does occur after sports meetings. But this "has not reached problem proportions". He has great praise for the departmental psychological clinic. He has referred eleven boys to the clinic and referred to the social worker and psychologist as having given "outstanding help to the eleven boys".

Vocational guidance, although not given directly by the teacher-counsellor, was done annually by Rotary who hold a Careers Forum.

Comment and Findings.

An inadequate counselling service for a large boys' school. A great deal more is required than is done at this school. The saving grace is the teacher-counsellor's willingness to refer "extreme problems" to psychological services, who handle these with interest, concern and at a professional level.

The teacher-counsellor is completely untrained and

inexperienced. Teachers who are not suitably qualified should not be given the responsibility of the position of teacher-counsellor. A disappointing service in a large school.

School B.3.

Buildings and Grounds are exceptionally well maintained. This is the equivalent of any first class public school in the Western world. A strong parents and old boys' association gives support for many extra facilities. The tradition and tone of the school is of great concern to an exceptional principal, whose influence is extended to the staff and boys.
Location: Near centre of the city. Socio-economic status of the school ranges from upper middle class and includes adolescents from lower class homes.
Area Description: Residential. Houses and flats in non-commercial area, near large city parks.
School Population: Nine hundred.
Staff Number: Fifty-three.
Principal: Supports counselling in the school but leaves this department to the discretion of the teacher-counsellor.
Teacher-Counsellor: Male.
Qualifications: B.A. (Hons) Psychology. He does not hold a University Education Diploma; nor has he included any teaching subjects for the degree he holds. He has had twenty years of experience as a personnal officer in industry. He maintains that, *"Counsellors who come fresh from university have not enough experience of life and the problems that occur to counsel the adolescent population"*.

The Counselling done at this School: The counsellor sees six boys a day (on an average). He interviews their parents and any other person who may be involved with the boy in question. Approximately fifty percent of interviews are on career guidance. The balance concerns the problems bothering boys. These range from educational to personal issues and are due to a variety of reasons. He listed

these as follows: Social pathology in the home, e.g. divorce or health problems; economic difficulties due to a variety of reasons; inadequate funds "at home" causing the boys to feel insecure and unhappy. In all these cases "adaptation to the situation counselling" is given.

This school counsellor does no group counselling at all. It has been made known that any boy is welcome to see him at any time. They know the interview is confidential. He seldom refers a case to psychological services because he feels competent to handle whatever problem arises. He knows that he relates very well to the average adolescent school-boy. He knows that in an interview the boy soon feels that his problem is the counsellor's main concern.

He feels that counselling is an invaluable service and it is essential that the school population have a confidante to whom they can relate in times of stress and need. He consults relevant members of staff should this be necessary.

Comment and Findings.

This counsellor is obviously competent to handle personal problems. However, he does no group counselling. It would be preferable if he did discuss the general problems of life and attitudes to living with the school population in group counselling classes. He would probably find that many more boys would avail themselves of his services as a result of group counselling. The fact that he is not a teacher is counter-balanced by the fact that he is mature and experienced in the field of counselling. (It is of note that since the writer investigated the school concerned, the teacher-counsellor has been promoted to a post within one of the departmental clinics and has left the school.)

School B.4.

Buildings and Grounds are well maintained.
Location: The school is situated in a peripheral area of the city, approximately ten kilometres south of the centre of the city. The school overlooks an industrial area, although its immediate surrounds are residential.
Social Strata: The schoolgoing population are drawn from working class and artisan class families. Suggested classification is lower middle class, with some exceptions in the case of pupils who are from families in a higher income bracket.
Parents and Old Boys' Association: Some parents do take an interest in the school, but there is a minimum of support from the parents and Old Boys' Association for extra facilities and comforts.
School Population: Four hundred and fifty-three.
Staff Number: Thirty
Principal: Supports counselling in the school and co-operates with the teacher-counsellor in every way.
Teacher-Counsellor: Male.
Teacher-Counsellor's Qualifications: B.A. B.Ed.[7] with a major in Psychology. This teacher-counsellor does no teaching. He however, does do group counselling.

Teacher-Counsellor's work load is as follows:

1. He sees about three cases a day.
2. He interviews parents whenever required.
3. He does group counselling on topics he considers valuable, in order to educate and inform the classes on subjects that cannot be dealt with in the normal school syllabus. The following are examples of topics discussed in Group Counselling:
   Inter-class relationships;
   Wholesome family life;
   Marriage and sex (general information);
   Self esteem;
   Aspects of behaviour, e.g. emotional, basic impulses, motivation;
   Being intellectual (what this means);

The meaning of hereditary and environment;
The community; and
The learning process and study methods.

He uses group counselling classes as a platform to offer his services to anybody requiring help with a personal or educational problem.

Vocational Guidance: This teacher-counsellor found that vocational guidance is essential in this school. Many boys came from homes where newspapers, magazines, pamphlets and television are luxuries which are unobtainable. If not culturally deprived, pupils are in need of information about the various vocations and professions that exist.

This counsellor does his best to provide this information. He arranges for speakers to visit the school and address the boys on a variety of topics, the aim being to widen the horizons of the pupils.

He is keen on showing films which are educational and of value. These could range from a film on venereal disease to information on the large scale production of bread and job opportunities available in the baking industry. Pupils had recently seen a film on optometry and on how to become an optometrist.

This teacher-counsellor interviews every standard X pupil. individually concerning vocational opportunities. He suggests that they read up about the various careers (literature is provided) and return to him for further discussion. He takes into account their interests, aptitudes and general level of intelligence. He does not judge ability on I.Q. Tests. He takes into account family circumstances of individuals. He does do I.Q. testing as well as interest and aptitude testing.

Comment and Findings.

This school has an all round counselling service of excellent quality. The qualifications and interest of the counsellor are well reflected in the service he gives to the school boys in his care. He attempts the full circle of counselling on personal problems, educational difficulties and vocational guidance. He uses group counselling for educating the boys on suitable topics. He shows films and invites guest speakers who are experts in their fields in order to widen the horizons of boys who do not have these opportunities in their home circle. He is willing to see parents of boys with a problem, since he sees each boy as a member of a family as well as a pupil in the school. He realizes that both roles need to be in harmony if there is to be satisfactory achievement. (It is of note that since the writer investigated the school concerned, the teacher-counsellor has left the school and accepted a post as a university lecturer in another Province.)

School B.5.

Buildings and Grounds are well maintained.
Location: Three to four kilometres from the centre of the city. The school is situated in a residential area, not far from an industrial part of the city.
Social Strata of the School Population: A mixed class structure. There are boys from the upper middle class, middle class and lower working class sections of the population. The income range of the families from which boys of this school emanate is therefore varied.
School Population: Nine hundred.
Number of Teachers: Fifty-four.
The Principal: Supports the counselling service and regards it as necessary due to the stresses and strains of modern living on the nuclear family.
Parents' and Old Boys' Associations: Both these bodies give strong support to the school and provide 'extras' and have a genuine interest and pride in the school.

Teacher-Counsellors: There are two male teacher-counsellors in this school. Cousellor A deals with Stds. VI and VII. Counsellor B deals with Stds. VIII, IX and X. Only Counsellor B was interviewed. He heads the unit.

Qualifications of Teacher-Counsellors: Both counsellors hold B.A. B.Ed.[8] degrees with majors in psychology.

Work Load:

1. The teacher-counsellor interviewed gives group counselling on topics of interest and of value not included in any other subject in the curriculum. He uses these classes as an opportunity to invite boys with personal, educational or other problems to see him so that he can help them if possible.
2. He sees about four boys per day.
3. He does vocational guidance. He does this through personal interviews to ascertain the interest and aptitude of each boy in his section. He shows films, invites guest speakers and arranges a vocational forum with Rotary once a year.
4. He does I.Q. and Aptitude Testing. He regards these as tools in diagnosis and does not over-value them.
5. He interviews parents and teachers in an effort to aid boys who have problems.
6. He finds that teachers refer boys to him when they feel there is a difficulty. He in turn informs the teachers of his findings when he feels this is necessary (he respects confidentiality) for greater understanding which will lead to improved performance. He made the point that one can inform a teacher of a boy's home circumstances without divulging any details.

Comment and Findings.

A well organized counselling service reflecting the ability, knowledge, experience and understanding of the counsellor. He uses group counselling, films and invites prominent specialists in various professions and trades to address the boys in order to give them a wide spectrum of information on careers. He deals with

emotional problems, teaching the boy concerned to cope with the problem where it cannot be solved.

He regards the counselling service as invaluable so that pupils can leave school with knowledge that will assist them to face life as adults with maturity and a balanced and confident outlook.

"At last", he said, *"the mental health and emotional needs of the individual school pupil are being cared for with the same emphasis as learning new facts for examination purposes"*.

School B.6.

The principal in response to the writer's request for an interview with the teacher-counsellor of "his" school, replied as follows:

> *"I am afraid that from now until the end of the term we are under pressure administratively and it will not therefore be convenient for my counsellor or myself to be available for interview. However, the information you are seeking is supplied in accordance with the headings of your letter"*.

School Population: Five hundred and twenty.
Pupils interviewed between January and June 1977: Two hundred and twenty-three.
Pupils who approached directly for help: Seventy-five.
Pupils with serious problems referred: Twenty-two.
The Nature of Problems of Pupils Interviewed:
Personal;
Home;
Inter-personal relationships;
Educational difficulties;
Death of parent; and
Unemployment.

Number of Pupils interviewed concerning Vocational Guidance: One hundred and thirty.

A follow-up study was made of this school in November 1980. There was a new principal. The teacher-counsellor was not available, however, the principal was both co-operative and informative.

He gave the following information:

Buildings and Grounds are well maintained.
Location: Two, three kilometres from the city centre, but in a residential area.
School Population: Three hundred and fifteen.
Teaching Staff: Twenty-three.
Teacher-Counsellor: Female.
Strata: Lower middle class.

The principal stressed the fact that the school population had decreased due to economic factors. Adolescents tend to leave school in order to earn money. The school population was drawn mainly from the lower middle class. The actual areas were the beach, the Stamford Hill area, Greyville and the centre city. He stated that forty percent of the adolescents from this school (thirteen - eighteen years of age) no longer lived with their own parents. They were either living alone or in foster homes, or living with people who had for one reason or another undertaken their care. Some lived with one parent as a result of divorce or death of a parent. There seemed to be a high percentage of "widows" who were the only breadwinners. There was also a high percentage of "step-children", who lived with relatives who had legally adopted them or decided to care for them.

The main problem in the school was as a result of poverty. Many pupils came to school hungry. Many were very poorly dressed, in fact, in "torn ragged clothes and wearing ill-fitting shoes". The teacher-counsellor was in constant touch with Child Welfare.

Many of the children were of families well known to Child Welfare.

The principal reported that the school tuck shop had recently begun selling soup at two cents a cup, but this did not solve the problem. Many came from homes where there was inadequate accommodation for them to sleep, let alone study. The Parents' Association was not at all co-operative. They could not afford to be interested.

The principal felt that in this school, too much of the counsellor's time should not be taken on group counselling as, every day, there were personal problems that required attention. He agreed that group counselling had educational value, but other problems had to be put right before many of the pupils could benefit from teaching and learning. He appeared to be very concerned and worried.

Concerning vocational guidance, they did show vocational films on occasions. There were forty-four final year pupils. These would mainly go on to study at the Technikon; approximately six would apply for loans and bursaries for university education.

Interest and aptitude testing, as well as I.Q. tests were done routinely. The principal regarded I.Q. tests as having limited value in this school since home environment could be the cause of apparent lack of intelligence through cultural deprivation and malnutrition.

The principal approved of counselling, but did not approve of a counsellor who "tried to take over the school" and regard himself as the 'king-pin'. He did not object if a counsellor interviewed parents but he did object if he was not informed, because ultimately, he was responsible for the school. Provided the counsellor knew his place, the principal admitted that he played a useful and necessary part in the day-to-day problems that occurred. He agreed that schools with problems like those at B.6 required

in-depth investigation and recommendations, followed by prompt action.

Comment.

When poor socio-economic conditions affect fifty percent of the school population to the extent that they come to school hungry, wear torn clothes and have very unsatisfactory home conditions, and where forty percent live alone or with 'other people' - it would appear that there is an urgent need for an enquiry into the problems at this and other such schools.

The serving of soup cannot solve the nutrition problem. Free milk should be distributed. A hot meal should be served to each pupil at lunch time. A nominal fee could be charged. In England, many schools have proper dining and kitchen facilities. It would not be out of place to have a boarding establishment for these adolescents, so that they could be properly housed and fed and have a place to study. The principal's concern is a barometer of the urgency of the problem and there is no doubt that there should be a prompt enquiry into the position.

8.4 Co-Educational Secondary Schools in Natal.

Co-Educational School 1.

Buildings and Grounds are well maintained.
Location: Twenty-five kilometres north-west of the city.
Area Description: Semi-rural and residential. Pleasant outlook and surrounds.
Population Strata: Middle class and upper middle class. Many from affluent homes. A small percentage from working class families.
School Population: Three hundred boys : Three hundred girls.
Principal: A genial man in favour of school counselling.
Teacher-Counsellor: Male.
Qualifications of Teacher-Counsellor: B.A. U.E.D., majors in Psychology and Anthropology. Teaching subjects - Latin and English. University Education Diploma (Method courses were Latin, English and Vocational Guidance).

This teacher-counsellor explained that in third year Psychology he had a choice between clinical and industrial psychology. He chose clinical psychology. He did case-work in hospitals. He taught for nine years in Rhodesia, then lectured at Bulawayo Teacher's College. Later he registered as a Clinical Psychologist and did private practice as a psychologist. He then did the Bachelor of Education Counselling course at the University of Natal.

Work Load:

1. This counsellor teaches mathematics to one class for six periods per week.
2. He spends a great deal of time assisting pupils in Std. VII with the choice of courses for Std. VIII.
3. Vocational Guidance is given individually and in group guidance classes. He finds that vocational guidance acts as an introductory catalyst, e.g. "one boy came to discuss maths., but in fact the reason was to obtain help in sorting out a love affair". Similarly, a girl who was "keen on a boy" came to

ask his advice on "how to get him interested". Training in social skills and a discussion on the inter-relationships between boy/girl resulted, which the counsellor hopes will be of value to her in her future life.

4. Initiating the Counselling Service.

When he first came to the school as a counsellor, he embarked on an active publicity campaign during group discussion classes concerning his role in the school.

He was there to guide pupils in respect of vocations and to assist them with any personal problem or worry. His main task was to assist them whenever possible to be happy balanced people.

5. He administered various tests. In order to measure I.Q., he used the New South African Group Test. He also used the nineteen Field Interest Test; Junior Aptitude Test for Stds. VI and VII and the Senior Aptitude Test is used for Std. IX.

His own opinion was that these tests have little practical value. He does not give I.Q. results to the teachers in case they judge pupils according to the results. He prefers the American Aptitude Test and the D.A.T. I.Q. Test. He obtains the test material from the United States.

6. He interviews about six pupils per day and many informally or on follow-up interviews.

7. He has referred very few pupils to psychological services. He referred one border-line retardation case for a second opinion.

8. Girls are willing to confide in him. There were two pregnancies in the last year. Both cases were sent to Britain by parents for abortion.

9. He commented on the high divorce rate in the area. He knows of one hundred and fifty members of the school whose parents are divorced or separated. He counsels many of these pupils regularly.

10. Drugs are not a problem in this school. Alcohol is given to senior school pupils for private parties by their parents. He observed that alcoholic drinks were available at a party to which he was invited by a senior boy of the school. Smoking is a regular problem. Films on the abuse of alcohol and smoking have been shown. Talks have been given on these subjects by experts who have given the facts to the senior and junior pupils of the school.

11. The principal allows him to interview parents without reference to him. He, however, usually informs the principal of any interview with a parent.

12. Records of interviews are kept. He uses his discretion as to the details of these records, depending on circumstances.

13. Talks on sex and family life are given by Marriage Guidance Officials.

Comment and Findings.

This counselling service is adequately maintained due to the training and qualifications of the teacher-counsellor. Since he does group counselling, personal interviews on problems with both pupils and parents, teaches mathematics for six periods a week, administers and scores the psychological tests and coaches cricket - an assistant teacher-counsellor would not be out of place. He found no difficulty being a male counsellor in a co-educational school. However, only an interview with the girls themselves would prove his acceptability to them on all issues.

8.5 Co-Educational School 2.

Buildings and Grounds are well maintained.
Location: Approximately four kilometres from the centre of the city.
Area Description: The school is surrounded by flats and small homes. The school, although in a residential area, is on the fringe of an industrial area. The school overlooks the bay and harbour.
Social Strata of the School Population: This varies from upper middle class to pupils from a low income bracket. Many parents send their children to this school because of the (Afrikaans) medium of instruction. They would prefer them to attend this school rather than attend a school in their own area, but where instruction is not given in their home language.
School Population: Three hundred girls and three hundred boys.
Principal's Attitude: He approves of the school counselling department and likes the department to be administered "as laid down by the rules given to the counsellors by the Head of Psychological Services".
Teacher-Counsellors: There are two teacher-counsellors - a female teacher-counsellor for the girls and a male for the boys. The former was interviewed.
Teacher-Counsellor's Qualifications: She holds the degree of B.A. and a teacher's diploma. This counsellor did a special course in counselling in Psychology III. Only a certain number of students were selected for this course. She taught for four years at the school before doing counselling. She still teaches one class of history as well as performing her counselling duties.

Work Load of Counsellor.

1. She does group counselling and uses this as a platform to invite girls to consult her concerning their own problems.

2. She sees approximately five personal problem cases per week.

3. She interviews every final year scholar for vocational guidance.

4. She gives talks on family life, pregnancy and marriage.

5. She reports that of the three hundred girls in the school, last year approximately eighty from lower class homes and twenty from upper class homes had sex relations with older men or with school boys. She did her best to teach the girls the folly of such behaviour. Pregnancy did occur. In some cases parents adopted the child. In other cases the child was given out for adoption. A great deal of sadness resulted from this behaviour.

   The teacher-counsellor felt this situation was due to ignorance, and often innocent girls were the victims. They were trying to be adult and had little or no parental guidance. Counselling in this field was essential in group counselling classes in order to prevent such behaviour.

6. Vocational guidance was given and bursaries arranged for further study if the pupil had obtained a high aggregate but could not afford university or training college fees.

7. The teacher-counsellor of this co-educational school has a warm personality. She is confident due to training. She seldom refers cases to Psychological Services. She does, however, discuss cases with the male counsellor. She regards counselling of major importance and an essential service for the well-being of individuals in the school. This was particularly in the case of children from lower income group families, where less educated parents seem less concerned about the level of academic achievement of their daughters (one cannot generalize however). But where the home influence fails to support the teacher's values, the anti-academic culture is given free rein. The girls in this category give more attention "to social life" outside the home and disregard the need to

study and do regular homework.

Some need to do part time work in order to augment the family income or to have pocket money of their own. If they are keen on their academic careers, this will not deter them from working hard at their studies and achieving well.

This teacher-counsellor sees herself as part teacher, part psychologist, part friend and ally, but above all, accepted by the girls whom she counsels, as an individual who does not judge or criticize their actions but endeavours to help them by educating them and understanding their particular circumstances. She does her best to promote academic interest and encourage maximum attainment.

8.6 Private Secondary Schools.

Private Secondary School 1.

Location and Environs: The school is situated on forty-two acres on the eastern edge of an escarpment and overlooks the coast. The school's proximity to both town and country affords the boys and girls the cultural and social benefits of the city and the practical advantages of the country.

The main buildings are occupied as classrooms and dormitories, offices, library, resource centre, teachers' quarters, kitchens, diningroom and refectory. Outdoor facilities include a swimming pool, games field, tennis courts, cricket practice areas, horse riding facilities and opportunities for agriculture on a small scale.

This is a Catholic-orientated school The starting point for the philosophy of the school is that education has a spiritual basis and that the ethos of the school is the living of religion which should affect attitudes to all that is done in the school.

The Staff: Operating within this framework is a staff whose duty it is to create the atmosphere in which students can prepare themselves for life, by a spiritual, mental and physical development which is balanced and integrated.

Educational Practice of the School: Essential to the philosophy of the school is the idea that its educational practice should continue to meet the demands of the age. For this reason there are regular staff meetings, a parent council, a school council and there is also close co-operation between the Board of Trustees and the school.

In this school the staff seeks to transform formalistic teaching into 'creative education' for each child consistent with his own nature and needs. Great use is made of the school library. The library offers opportunities for independent study. Films, talks by experts and excursions are arranged regularly.

School Population: One hundred and six (twenty-seven girls). Maximum number - one hundred and fifty.
School Type: Co-educational.
Boarders: Twenty-seven.
Strata: Usually from upper middle class families.
Teachers: Nine
Main School Philosophy: Catholicism based, but tolerant of other religions and races.
Criterion of Acceptance: (1) Ability to pay fees. (2) Whether the school offers the subjects the entrant requires for matriculation.
Counselling: is part of the life of the school. The school Chaplain is a trained psychologist as well as a Priest.
The Principal is part of the life of the school. "He is in and among the pupils". He is also a counsellor. He holds a B.A. degree from the Council of Public Education in Melbourne. He has a U.E.D. which is a teaching diploma.
A senior member of staff does the I.Q. testing and vocational guidance.

Each pupil is treated as an individual and the principal and Priest-psychologist know the history and circumstances of each pupil. The whole philosophy of the school is based on "the value of the child" and caring for the individual. Each pupil is well-known to the entire staff since the classes are so small in number, and therefore obtains individual attention.
Parental Co-operation: This is greatly valued. The principal or Priest-counsellor consults the parents or guardians if there is a problem. If the pupil comes from a problem home situation, the teacher-counsellors endeavour to teach them how to cope with the situation.
Referral of Cases: They do occasionally refer a pupil to the Children's Assessment Centre or to the Meyrick Bennett Centre.

Comment and Findings:

Small numbers and basic philosophy combine to make each pupil known to the principal and Priest-counsellor and staff.

The former two counsellors know the complete history of each pupil and in most cases have met and know the circumstances of the parents.

According to the principal's judgement, *"Counselling is ongoing all the time"*.

Private Secondary School 2.

Buildings and Grounds: The school buildings are well designed and maintained. The playing fields are adequate. Rugby, tennis, swimming and cricket are among the sports facilities offered. The school is well appointed.

The purpose of the school is to provide a Jewish education to all who desire it, in addition to the normal curriculum provided by the Natal Education Department.

The aim is to provide an education which will produce young people who will be an influence for good on the future, through their conscience and compassion, through their knowledge and strength and their sense of community. The education they receive is broad-minded, in keeping with the technical age in which we live, but with the knowledge of the laws given in the Old Testament, which are timeless in their applicability to modern society.

Criterion for Acceptance is the wish to have this type of education. Sixteen to twenty percent are from poorer homes and cannot afford the fees. They are accepted as non-fee paying pupils. There are non-Jewish children at the school whose parents wish them to have a broad based education. They do not participate in the religious aspect of the curriculum. In fact, the principal is a devout Catholic. He maintains that it is the philosophy of Judaism, not the religious aspect that is emphasized, although all Jewish Holy days are observed, including teaching the significance of observing the Sabbath. Six comma seven percent (6,7 percent) of the pupils are Non-Jewish. The school is government-aided.

School Population: Two hundred and sixty.

Staff: Twenty-three.

Counsellor: At the time of this investigation, the present principal was the teacher-counsellor. After his appointment as principal, no counsellor was appointed to replace him.

Reason for no Replacement of Teacher-Counsellor: The principal maintained that he had not been able to find a suitable teacher-counsellor. In this school the counsellor would have to take more responsibility than usual. He or she would need to guide pupils in regard to subject choice for Std. VIII, from the selection available, as laid down by the Education Department. He or she would have to advise the principal after careful consultation with teachers and parents as to the best choice for each pupil according to aptitude and interests. The problem is that many pupils require special concessions to do subjects not included in "the subject packages". The school offers Hebrew as a Senior Certificate subject, but not all pupils do Hebrew.

Types of Problems the Principal encountered when he was the Teacher-Counsellor.

1. Parents' Expectations of their son or daughter were too high in some cases. The pupil "over-works" to please parents. Careful counselling is required, mainly to the parents to make them realize that "Johnny is not university material". Allowance however, must be made for late maturers.

2. Parental Concern and Interest in this school is always present. The counsellor would see more parents in a week than some saw in years at other schools.

3. No Drug or Alcohol Problem.

4. There is the usual lack of communication between parents and adolescents in some cases. There have been some reports of "adult sexual behaviour" of schoolgoing boys and girls, but no major worries concerning this modern problem have arisen.

5. Marriage Guidance Officers visit the school and lecture to them on family life and give "approved of" sex education.

6. The Principal regards I.Q., interest and aptitude tests as providing useful extra information. He does not place a great deal "of store" on these test results.

7. Cumulative record cards and health cards were found useful when specific information about a pupil was required.

8. Vocational Guidance. This principal and ex-school counsellor thought that vocational guidance was not "so necessary" in this school. The reason given was that parental interest was high and therefore, parents discussed vocations with suitable specialists and often obtained direct help from them, themselves. The percentage of "Professional parents" at the school was high

and these parents could give a great deal of information to their children themselves.

9. Films and lectures on a variety of topics were a norm at this school.

10. Punishment: Corporal punishment was given to boys, but never in excess. If corporal punishment was required repeatedly an investigation into the real cause would be made.

11. The principal had referred cases to psychological services on about five occasions in a year.

12. Social pathology within a family due to divorce, separation, death of a parent or illness, were all factors that were dealt with when they were brought to the counsellor's notice.

Comment and Findings.

The principal was a little reticent to give information on "their counselling service" because he felt that he, himself as principal, could not fulfill the role of counsellor satisfactorily. His position as principal had by necessity "put a distance between himself and the pupils", which was not the case when he had been teacher-counsellor.

He, however, values a counselling service and feels that it is essential to have a teacher-counsellor on the staff to handle the problems of adolescence that occur in all schools, since adolescence is the period in which boys and girls require to discuss "their physical and emotional growing pains" with a sympathetic and capable adult.

8.7 Observations as a Result of the Investigation into the Twelve Secondary Schools Described.

1. There is a strong connection between the qualifications and the role of the counsellor, in terms of:
   a. interviews on problem counselling;
   b. views on teaching and counselling; and
   c. views on the value of group counselling.

2. Concerning referrals and the use of guidance services. The man with the least suitable qualifications used the Durban clinic most and refers both boys and their parents to the clinic for counselling. This implies that many "ordinary" cases that require help are overlooked.

3. Those who are well qualified and have had experience, handle most cases on their own, but would on occasions like to consult other teacher-counsellors.

4. Those theoretically qualified but without experience would welcome a regular visit (e.g. bi-monthly) by an experienced or mature counsellor to discuss problems with him or her.

5. Those who are well qualified, all interview the parents and see the adolescent as a member of a family in the community, not only a pupil at the school. They, above all, see each pupil as an individual whose opinions they must respect.

6. In co-educational schools the teacher-counsellor was a male if its an English-medium or private school.

7. In a co-educational school which is Afrikaans-medium, there is a male teacher-counsellor for boys and a female teacher-counsellor for girls.

8. In private co-educational schools, the teacher-counsellor is a male in both cases.

9. In secondary boys' schools, women are sometimes appointed to the position of teacher-counsellor. In this study one out of six counsellors was a woman in such schools.

All the teacher-counsellors were of opinion that a Guidance and Counselling service was an invaluable asset to the school-going population.

The views of past pupils will be obtained from the questionnaire submitted to first year students at the University of Natal and the Natal Technikon. It must be stated clearly that not all these students were from Natal schools - a percentage had attended school in other provinces.

Recommendations as a result of this study will be made in the final chapter of this dissertation.

TABLE II - DEMOGRAPHIC AND OTHER DATA WHICH CAN BE EXPRESSED NUMERICALLY - SCHOOLS ARE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX OF PUPILS (MALE, FEMALE AND CO-EDUCATIONAL)

A = Girls' High Schools	2
B = Boys' High Schools	6
C = Co-educational Provincial Secondary School	2
D = Private Co-educational High School	2
TOTAL	12 Secondary schools observed and studied

	Number of pupils	Staff	Number of teacher-counsellors	Standards taught	Teach subjects in addition to counselling	Vocational guidance	Cases per day	Personal counselling cases referred to Psychological Services
A								
1	933	56	2	Stds. VI, VII VIII, IX, X	Only group counselling (no teaching) - 0	from Std. VIII	2	0
2	600	40	1	VII to X	Only group counselling (no teaching) - 0	Std. X	5	Seldom
B								
1	920	52	2	VI to X	Nil	VII to X	6	2
2	453	30	1	VI to X	Nil	VIII to X	3	Seldom
3	477	30	1	VI to X	English six periods per week to Practical class	IX to X	1	Seldom
4	900	53	1	VI to X	Nil	VII to X	6	Nil
5	700	52	1	VI to X	English - no group counselling	VI, VII and VIII only	Nil	All cases are referred to counsellor at the clinic
6	350	40	1	VI to X	Mathematics	X only	4	Cases referred to Social Work agencies and to Psychological Services
C								
1	300 m/300 f	40	1	VI to X	Mathematics three times per week to Practical class	X	1	Six in six months
2	300 m/300 f	52	2 (Female: girls Male: boys)	VI to X	History five times per week	VIII, IX and X	2	Five per annum
D								
1	108 (boarders 27 girls 15)	9	0 (Principal)	VI to X	No specific group counselling	When required*	When required	Nil - own Priest
2	260	23	0 (Principal)**	VI to X - would teach 1 class e.g. English	No specific group counselling	Seldom required***	When required	Addington psychiatric clinic or private psychologist, occasionally school service for testing

* Counselling is part of the life of the school - Father trained psychologist as well as a Priest.

** Principal has not yet found a suitable candidate for the post of teacher-counsellor.

*** Principal maintains that at matric level, through the general education in the school, films and discussions and keen parental interest, the majority know what career they wish to follow.

TABLE III - QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHER-COUNSELLORS IN THE TWELVE SCHOOLS.

A = Girls' High Schools
B = Boys' High Schools
C = Co-educational Provincial High Schools
D = Co-educational Private High Schools

	Counsellor's Qualifications
A School 1 " population: 933	2 Counsellors (female): Counsellor (a) for Stds. VI and VII. B.A. B.Ed. Counselling. Counsellor (b) for Stds. VIII, IX and X. B.A. Soc. Science.
School 2 " population: 600	1 Counsellor (female) B.A. U.E.D. B.Ed. (Counselling).
School 3	
B School 1 " population:	1 Counsellor (male) B.A. U.E.D. B.Ed Counselling
School 2 " population: 453	1 Counsellor (male) B.A. B.Ed.
School 3 " population: 477	1 Counsellor (female) N.T.S.D. 3 years teaching experience. B. Social Science, University of Natal. Curriculum Sociology I, II, III; Psychology I, II, III No counselling experience at all.
School 4 " population: 900	1 Counsellor (male) B.A. (Hons.) Psychology, No.U.E.D. No teaching subjects. Twenty years experience in personnel work in industry.
School 5 " population: 700	1 Counsellor N.T.S.D. Presently doing a degree with UNISA - has passed Psychology I. No counselling experience at all.
School 6 " population: 300	1 Counsellor B.A. U.E.D. only.

Continued/...

TABLE III - QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHER-COUNSELLORS IN THE TWELVE SCHOOLS Continued

	Counsellor's Qualifications
C	
School 1	1 Counsellor (male)
" population: 700 (300 girls)	B.A. U.E.D. Rhodes Methods courses: Latin, vocational guidance. Major: Psychology - chose clinical Practical work - case work in hospitals Taught for nine years Did private practice as psychologist plus guidance counselling. Teaches mathematics to practical group and counselling
School 2	1 Counsellor
" population:	B.A. S.O.D. Stellenbosch Special course in counselling in Psychology III - only a certain number of students selected for this course. Taught for four years before doing counselling in this school. Teaches History and counselling
D	
School 1	2 Counsellors
" population: 108	(a) B.A. Council of Public Education, Melbourne. U.E.D. Majors: Mathematics and English (b) Problem counselling by Priest - School Chaplain. B.A. (Psychology)
School 2	No Counsellor
" population: 260	B.A. U.E.D. (Principal)

NOTES.

1) U.E.D. stands for University Education Diploma which is a teaching qualification. It has since been changed to H.E.D., the Higher Education Diploma. B.Ed. is a Bachelor of Education which is a post-graduate degree which can only be taken after the graduate has a teaching qualification.

2) This was true in 1977 and has improved by 1980.

3) Intelligence Quotient.

4) Final year pupils.

5) These are not judgements but research findings.

6) Natal Teacher's Senior Diploma.

7) Bachelor of Arts; Bachelor of Education. The latter is a post-graduate teaching qualification.

8) Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Education.

A REPORT ON THE RESULTS OF A QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO FIRST YEAR STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NATAL AND THE NATAL TECHNIKON IN 1980.

"Facts do not lie around in the open ready to be picked up; they must be discovered". (John Dewey)*

The views of the teacher-counsellor obtained in the investigation conducted into the twelve secondary schools in the Greater Durban metropolitan area were unanimous in their decision as to the value of a Guidance and Counselling service. A questionnaire was submitted to first year students at tertiary level, in order to ascertain the views of post-secondary school pupils as to *their view* of the guidance and counselling service they had each experienced at the secondary school they had attended. See Appendix H for a copy of the questionnaire that was distributed.

Sample.

A random sample of first year students from the University of Natal and the Natal Technikon was examined.

Methods.

1. At both the University and the Technikon permission was obtained from the respective Heads of Departments to distribute and explain the questionnaire to the students during a routine lecture period. In both institutions, time was then given to the students to complete the questionnaire. The writer and a research assistant collected them immediately on completion.

At the University first year students attending the following courses completed the questionnaire.

Psychology (two groups);
Economics (two groups);
Mechanical Engineering;

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* Source:- As cited by Pauline Young in *Scientific Social Surveys and Research* (as reprinted in 1966; 93).

Science;
History; and
Architecture.

At the Technikon the questionnaire was submitted to first year students attending the following courses.

Market Management;
Journalism;
Legal Secretaries; and
Creative Design.

2. The questionnaire was intentionally designed to reinforce the memory of the student of the guidance and counselling service. By the time the student reached the final question he or she was thinking about the service and hopefully answered accurately, the question:
"All in all, thinking back do you think the counselling service at your school was worthwhile?"

Students were requested to qualify their answers.

Methods of Instruction.

1. The questionnaire was distributed to first year "at university" students; other students, except those who had returned from army training, were excluded.

2. The value of each student's reply to the outcome of the study was explained and emphasized by the writer. The research assistant present took great care to collect each questionnaire.

Analysis of the Results.

The total number of responses was counted. The total number of 'yes' responses and the total number of 'no' responses

were compared. The number of 'yes' and 'no' responses from the university group and the groups from the Technikon were evaluated separately. In order to determine the reasons for the particular responses, those questionnaires which qualified their answers with an explanatory statement were analysed. In order to exclude the possibility that a sub-group existed within the random sample, the responses of individual groups were also scored.

Results.

The results to the question:
"All in all, thinking back do you think the counselling service at your school was worthwhile?" are shown in Table I:

TABLE I.

NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECEIVED							
TOTAL OF ALL STUDENTS		YES	PERCENT			NO	PERCENT
910		426	46			484	54
NUMBER OF RESPONSES FROM UNIVERSITY AND TECHNIKON							
UNIVERSITY				TECHNIKON			
YES	PERCENT	NO*	PERCENT	YES**	PERCENT	NO***	PERCENT
302	43	400	57	124	59	84	41

* 142 students answered no yet thought that a well designed service was valuable.
258 students offered no reason.

** 51 thought the service could be improved.

*** 64 answered 'no' yet thought a well designed service was valuable.

The group of 142 from the university sample and the 64 from the Technikon sample who answered 'no' were further evaluated. The results are shown in Table II:

TABLE II.

ANALYSIS OF THE FAILURE OF THE COUNSELLING SERVICE				
	UNIVERSITY		TECHNIKON	
REASONS OFFERED	NO	PERCENT	NO	PERCENT
Communication gap	90	63,0	40	62,5
Lack of continuity	4	6,02	2	3,125
Lack of expertise	20	14	4	6,25
Outdated information	6	0,04	4	6,25
Unprofessional image	22	15,4	14	21,8

It can be seen that 63 percent and 62,5 percent from University and Technikon groups respectively cited that failure of the counselling service was as a result of the failure of teacher-counsellors to communicate adequately with the pupils. A professional image, respect, continuity of interest and awareness of current data and future trends in vocational counselling are important in providing an effective counselling service. It was thought that those who had found the service valuable must have derived benefit from the service. To test this hypothesis the sample of 124 from the Technikon who answered 'yes' was examined. A correlation between those who received positive career guidance and had a positive regard for the service was tested. The results are shown in Table III:

TABLE III.

ANALYSIS OF THE SAMPLE FROM THE TECHNIKON WHO ANSWERED 'YES'		
		Percent
Positive vocational advice	68	54
Negative vocational advice	56	46

It can be seen that there was a difference between the two groups but that this difference was not statistically significant. However, it was noted that all those students who received positive vocational advice regarded the counselling service as being useful.

The possibility remained that there may be differences in the sub-groups of the sample tested. The nature of this distribution of the questionnaire to separate classes allowed a ready comparison to test this possibility. The groups from psychology and economics were chosen as the two groups that had a comparable number of responses. Results are shown in Table IV:

TABLE IV.

PSYCHOLOGY					ECONOMICS				
TOTAL	YES	PERCENT	NO	PERCENT	TOTAL	YES	PERCENT	NO	PERCENT
283	139	48	154	52	277	140	50	137	49,4

Other groups show the following responses:

TABLE V.

	TOTAL	'YES'		'NO'	
		NO.	PERCENT	NO.	PERCENT
Mechanical Engineers	36	20	55	16	45
Science	43	23	53	20	47
History	37	16	43	21	57
Architecture	34	17	50	17	50

There were differences between the smaller samples but these were not statistically significant.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain the individual's past pupil's opinion of the counselling service at his or her school. There were a significant difference between the two groups tested; 43 percent from the University group as opposed to 59 percent from the Technikon group deemed the service to be of value. However, 62,1 percent for both groups of those who felt that the service was of no value cited that the failure of communication by the teacher-counsellor as the reason for the failure of the service. All those who obtained positive vocational advice found the service to be of value.

Discussion.

The questionnaire showed that 54 percent of the total number of past secondary school pupils found the counselling service at their secondary school unsatisfactory, while 46 percent found it to be of value. In the University group, 57 percent found that the Guidance and Counselling service which they received was not of value. Thirty-seven percent of that sample, 142 respondents, qualified why they thought the service was not of value.[1)] In the Technikon group, 59 percent thought the service was of benefit and 50 percent of that group qualified their answers saying it would be improved. Of the 41 percent who answered 'no' 68 percent qualified why the service was not of value.

It is interesting to note that when the groups who answered 'no' were analysed, 62 percent of both groups stated that failure to communicate accurate information in a way which showed empathy and understanding of adolescent problems, were the reason for the failure of the system. They too desired an informed professional counsellor whose trust they could accept through continued counselling.

There was a significant difference between the University and Technikon groups who thought the service was adequate, 43 and 59 percent respectively. The study however, was not designed to compare the two groups, the interpretation of this difference would no doubt show, it to be related to a number of factors. However, the 'yes' group from the Technikon showed that there is no correlation between those students from the Technikon who had received positive vocational guidance and those who thought the counselling services offered to them was of value. All those who received positive vocational guidance thought the service to be of value.

The nature of the Guidance and Counselling service precluded educational and personal counselling in the vast majority of responses, and this shortfall is tied up with the image and

availability of the counsellor, as seen by the pupil.

The trends seen in the groups as a whole were borne out when the sub-groups were analysed and differences between arts, science, commerce, engineering and architectural first year students were not significantly different.

It was noted that a small number of the first year students were from the twelve schools, where the counselling service was evaluated. The numbers were small in each group and therefore definite conclusions are not possible.

However, School A.1 was deemed by the writer to have a guidance service which had the ingredients for successful counselling. This was borne out by the fact that all six students who came from the school thought that the service was of value. School B.5 showed the same trend though again the sample was small.

The success of the high percentage of returns of the questionnaire, one hundred percent return with two papers spoilt is a contrast to the normal return expected from questionnaires. This may be due to several factors.

The questionnaire was submitted in the name of the Department of Sociology which gave it standing; the lecturing staff who assisted were interested and co-operative. This was the case in the Technikon as well as the University. The questionnaire was completed during the lecture period, the writer's own interest in the project was also a factor. She explained the value of each student's reply to the outcome of the study; being present while the questionnaire was being completed and being available to answer questions which arose appeared to make the students co-operate and concentrate on the task at hand. The personal distribution and collection of the questionnaire to each class to whom it was distributed had obvious advantages on those distributed through the mail. The latter type of distribution

according to Young and Bailey (1978) yields at the very outside a twenty percent return.

Conclusion.

It is clear that the majority of first year students at the above tertiary institutions regarded *their* school counselling service to be inadequate. They however desired a valuable service and deemed that a teacher-counsellor who was able to communicate in a manner acceptable to an adolescent audience, who was seen to be professional, efficient, approachable and informed would be a great asset on the staff of a secondary school.

The need to pay attention to the views of adolescents in regard to the counselling services, is evident. Adolescents vary in the kind of helping relationship they would prefer and any service for them, must be aware of their opinions in order to be of value. The results of this research will be borne in mind when the writer puts forward her recommendations at the conclusion of this dissertation.

NOTES.

1) Some students wrote a few sentences; others wrote a full paragraph giving their views on the Guidance and Counselling service.

CHAPTER NINE.

CONCLUSION.

"The role of the guidance counselor is functional to the school as an institution and to society, and as such it is a fertile and legitimate area for sociological scrutiny". (Weinberg 1969; 7)

The aim of Part I of this dissertation has been to interpret the idea of a school Guidance and Counselling service in contemporary Western society in terms of its manifest societal function. For this purpose the writer has used the perspective of the Sociology of Education as a frame of reference. Part II covers the empirical research done by the writer. This consists of a review of the Guidance and Counselling service in the four provinces of the Republic of South Africa; a report on twelve secondary schools in the Greater Durban Metropolitan area and the results of a questionnaire submitted to first year students of the University of Natal and first year students of the Natal Technikon. In addition, in this dissertation, case studies are cited from the writer's experience as a teacher-counsellor in a comprehensive secondary school for boys in the Province of Natal, from 1971-1974.

In resume.

This dissertation has been presented in two parts. Part I began with the historical background of the Sociology of Education from its beginning as educational sociology until it became known as the Sociology of Education. The research of Floud and Halsey (1957) who traced a recognisable history of the discipline was cited. Ward, Sumner, Small and Cooley were among the pioneers in sociology who concentrated their efforts on building systems of thought that would contribute some basic guidelines for the development of sociological theory. Their concerns were deeply imbedded

in the social unrest and injustices that characterized a society in transition from a rural to an urban economy. Sociology became an applied science and was a useful tool in the amelioration of social problems. Those sociologists interested in education contributed to educational sociology. However, by the late thirties and early forties in this century, the empirical research done by men such as Robert Park and Burgess in the United States of America and Floud and Halsey in Britain showed educational sociology to be unscientific and in some cases even anecdotal and superficial. In England the research in this field was concerned with human betterment to justify the reformist policies introduced by the government in power. Parelius and Parelius (1971), Brookover and Erikson (1975), Bernbaum (1977) and Young (1971) are all sources which note that the official change in this discipline came in 1963 when educational sociology became known as the Sociology of Education. According to Brookover and Erikson, writing in 1975:

> *"Twenty-five years ago there were a dozen sociologists in North America and only a few more in Great Britain and continental Europe who were identified by their research and publications as Sociologists of Education".* (1975; 3)

The writer then dealt with the development of the Sociology of Education by explaining its theoretical background and by references to the methodology used by the Sociology of Education. Some of the research done in the Sociology of Education was presented. Finally, in the last section of the first chapter there was a discussion on the contemporary debate (1971 onwards) in which the arguments of Young (1971 onwards), Bernstein (1971 onwards) and Bernbaum (1977) were put forward as representing those sociologists of education who saw the necessity for this discipline to research the very content of knowledge offered in institutions of education. The importance of the nature and transmission of knowledge was explained. It was also pointed out that,

"one of the main objectives of a counselling service is to assist individual students to achieve the maximum standards of which they are capable. Basically guidance and counselling in secondary schools is a service, which aims at promoting the successful transmission of knowledge so that the adolescent on leaving school will be able to play his role in society". (Part I; 43)

The writer then suggested that the institution of education was central to both the counselling service and to the Sociology of Education. The counselling service fulfills a function of the institution of education, therefore,

"Research on a counselling service is clearly a concern of the Sociology of Education". (Part I; 43)

Having established this, the following chapters were presented. The meaning of Guidance and Counselling and their place in secondary schools in the United States of America, Great Britain and the Republic of South Africa was considered. Here the manifest as well as the latent societal reasons for the establishment of the sub-institution of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools were put forward. A review of the American and English literature was presented in order to expose the contemporary interpretation of guidance and counselling by explanation and in some cases, definition. A description of the historical background to the introduction of guidance and counselling in the United States of America, Great Britain and the Republic of South Africa was given. It is the writer's belief that sociologists can and must use historical material in their attempt to understand the workings of social systems. Musgrave states,

"that when Max Weber wished to investigate the part religion played in the birth of capitalism he based his book, "The Prostestant ethic and the spirit of Capitalism" on a wide ranging examination of historical material, much of it culled from primary sources".
(Musgrave 1970; 4)

The writer is convinced that a historical perspective contributes to the understanding of the contemporary scene.

An analysis of the relationship between home and school as representatives of the institutions of the Family and Education was then presented. Finally a chapter on Adolescence, which in fact is fundamentally this dissertation's reason for being, was dealt with from the societal aspect, from the perspective of the school counsellor and on adolescence generally.

The crux of understanding the reason for the establishment of the sub-institution of Guidance and Counselling as a function of the institution of education is as follows. In the early part of the twentieth century, concurrent with the development of the sociology of education, there was the realization that education was necessary for all classes of people in Western democracies if these countries were to develop the manpower required for the technological age. This realization occurred earliest in the United States of America. Patterson (1969) and Shertzer (1971) give the date of the introduction of comprehensive education in the United States of America for all to be 1909. In Great Britain, Hewitson (1969), Lawrence (1972) and Jones (1977) all note that comprehensive secondary education was introduced as a result of the Butler Act of 1944. As a result of this Act in Britain, education was both free and compulsory for all. In the Republic of South Africa this became the legal position (for Whites) through the passing of Act No. 39 of 1967.

Olive Banks (1969), Weinberg (1969), Coser and Rosenberg (1970) and Brookover and Erikson (1971) all describe the phenomenon known as stratification. This social phenomenon has an effect on the 'educability' of the population. It was one thing to enact legislation which made provision for equal education for all, it was another problem to translate this democratic ideal into actuality. The reality of the situation was that due to inequalities in the class structure handed down from past generations the school

population consisted of pupils from many different cultural levels. These factors made nonsense of the term *equal* despite the legislation making for its provision. The sociologist, Burns[1)] pointed this out in England when he stated:

> *"A series of studies carried out during the 1950's demonstrated conclusively that equality of opportunity had certainly not been achieved".* (1967; 357)

It was the realization of the chasm between the aim of the legislators which was to provide a maximum output of educated people to man the technological society, and the reality of the situation that led to the idea of a Guidance and Counselling service. This sub-institution of education would have as one of its main purposes,

> *"a scale of values which would envisage education as a process of self-actualisation and personal enrichment ..."* (Fletcher 1980; 93)

as well as the needs of the economy and the manpower situation.

In the United States of America, Guidance and Counselling on a large scale came basically as a result of the pamphlet of the Bureau of Education (now the United States Office of Education). This pamphlet, *The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, had an impact on the educational movement in the United States of America in the 1920's and 1930's. It stated that the goal of education was effective living in several areas of human activity: health, fundamental mental processes, home membership, vocation, worthy use of leisure time and ethical character. Guidance as identical with education grew out of an attempt by Brewer and others to describe vocational guidance as a means of implementing the seven cardinal principles. He advanced the thesis that,

> *"... the goal of education is to prepare students to engage in meaningful life activities, with knowledge and wisdom as a means to acquire this end".* (Brewer cited by Shertzer and Stone 1971; 63)

In England the Guidance and Counselling service was inaugurated by separate local authorities as a result of the Newsom Report (1963). This report recommended the inception of Guidance and Counselling in order to fulfill the requirements of the Butler Act of 1944.

In the Republic of South Africa, the Human Sciences Research Council appointed a committee for differentiated education and guidance (1971) to establish a Guidance and Counselling service as an integrated part of the system of education for the Republic of South Africa and South West Africa (for Whites only) - in order to fulfill the requirements of Act No. 39 of 1967.

It can be seen, therefore, that in all the above countries Educational Guidance, Vocational Guidance and Personal Counselling were introduced to assist educators to attain their aim. As Brookover contends,

> *"... education is significantly related to the changing stratification in modern societies".* (1975; 114)

Since social stratification has been one of the underlying reasons for the need to establish guidance and counselling services in secondary schools in contemporary Western society, it is pertinent to consider the sociological aspects of stratification more closely. A sociological analysis, albeit brief of stratification will reinforce the writer's belief that an understanding of the structure of society is necessary in order to understand the role of the counsellor in the school system.

Coser and Rosenberg are of opinion that class is an ambiguous term *"used loosely in every-day parlance"* (1962; 377). The concept of class is associated, inter alia, with Karl Marx. However, Coser and Rosenberg state that,

> *"It is not however, for fomulating and fostering the class struggle that sociological theory owes much to Marx, but rather for his pointing sharply to the*

objectives reality of social stratification". (1972; 378)

According to Coser and Rosenberg's judgement, Weber held that class could not be defined in exclusively economic terms and in this there was basic disagreement with Marx. However, it was Weber's contention that the social sciences are concerned with the understanding as distinct from the simple behaviouristic reporting of human action. He saw class from the subjective or attitudinal aspect of this phenomenon (stratification). For Weber class connotates everything *"that clusters around honor"* and for Weber and Thorstein Veblen (1857-1929) status suggests the consumption of goods other than their production. From Italy came the powerful challenge of Vilifredo Pareto (1848-1923) to whom stratification was a central and ineradicable fact. In the United States of America, Coser and Rosenberg maintain that American theory touched *"but fleetingly and superficially on the subject of class".* In the United States of America, no one treated 'class' with the mastery of Verblen. Pitirim Sorokin wrote a useful text book called, *Social Mobility,* thirty years ago but its roots were European. Verblen's work influenced Robert and Helen Lynd who wrote the earliest and still most valuable community study known as *Middeltown.*

According to Coser and Rosenberg's judgement (1972; 278) the most systematic treatment of stratification was a paper published on 'stratification' in the *American Sociological Review* (1945) by Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore entitled, *Some Principles of Stratification.*

The central argument advanced by Davis and Moore can be stated in a number of sequential propositions as follows:

1. *Certain positions in any society are functionally more important than others, and require special skills for their performance.*

2. *Only a limited number of individuals in any society have the talents which can be trained into the skills appropriate to these positions.*

3. *The conversion of talents into skills involves a training period during which sacrifices of one kind or another are made by those undergoing the training.*

4. *In order to induce the talented persons to undergo these sacrifices and acquire the training, their future positions must carry an inducement value in the form of differential, i.e. privileged and disproportionate access to the scarce and desired rewards which the society has to offer.*

5. *These scarce and desired goods consist of the rights and prerequisites attachedto or built into, the positions, and can be classified into those things which contribute to (a) sustenance and comfort; (b) humour and diversion; and (c) self respect and ego expansion.*

6. *This differential access to the basic rewards of the society has as a consequence the differentiation of the prestige and esteem which various strata acquire. This may be said, along with the rights and perquisites, to constitute institutionalized social inequality, i.e. stratification.*

7. *Therefore social inequality among different strata in the amounts of scarce and desired goods, and the amounts of prestige and esteem which they receive, is both positively functional and inevitable in any society.*

It is unfortunately beyond the scope of this dissertation to analyse each of the above. Coser and Rosenberg have done this admirably, and concluded that doubt can be cast on the contention that,

> *"Social inequality is thus an unconsciously evolved device by which societies insure that the most important positions are conscientiously filled by the most qualified persons".* (Coser and Rosenberg 1969; 426)

Davis and Moore however, are firm in their belief that every society no matter how simple or complex, must differentiate persons in terms of both prestige and esteem and,

> *"must therefore possess a certain amount of institutionalized inequality".* (Davis and Moore 1969; 405 edited by Coser and Rosenberg)[2)]

These inequalities are written into the major determinants of the social class index which have traditionally been occupation, income and education. Each of these is strongly related to each other and to other variables. In the United States of America, according to Weinberg,

> *"The American society has in recent years closed status ranks to the point that the notion of mass society is generally applicable".* (1969; 29)

He maintains, however, that although the very poor and the very rich are present the distribution of status characteristics now approximates a normal curve. In Britain and in Western Europe in the light of attempts to normalize this curve, Olive Banks suggests that,

> *"the elite ideology in secondary education is at present severely challenged both in Britain and in other parts of Western Europe by the idea of the comprehensive school ..."* (1969; 24)

The point of relevance is that a democratic government should act as an agent for its entire people. Social stratification becomes a challenge to educators and sociologists of education and special efforts must be made to help those who are capable of overcoming deficits in their backgrounds, whether these be genetic or

environmental or of other causation. For this purpose the sub-institution of Guidance and Counselling in Western type democracies has emerged, but as Weinberg contends,

> *"The role of educational guidance as an intervening agency may only be effective if an understanding of sub-cultures and institutions is part of the counselor's intellectual apparatus".* (Weinberg 1969; 127)

Olive Banks points out that the complexity of the issues involved suggest that,

> *"We need not only more but better and more sophisticated research into the interrelationships between education and society".* (1969; 218)

Having presented some aspects of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools in contemporary Western society from the perspective of the Sociology of Education in Part I of this dissertation, the writer then presented the following research which is applicable to the Republic of South Africa in Part II of this work.

1. The position of Guidance and Counselling in the Republic of South Africa: *A Review of the position in the four provinces.*

2. A report on the Guidance and Counselling services offered in *twelve secondary schools in the Greater Durban Metropolitan area.*

3. *A questionnaire was submitted to first year students of the University of Natal and to first year students of the Natal Technikon.* Nine hundred and eight replies were received for analysis and interpretation. The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain the opinion of each student of the Guidance and Counselling service at the particular secondary school from which he/she came.

Recommendations.

As a result of the foregoing, and from the writer's own experience gained as a teacher-counsellor in a secondary school from 1971-1974, and from insights gained by a study of the literature, the following recommendations are offered:

1. *A knowledge of basic sociology should be included in the curriculum of the school counsellor.* This is necessary in order to understand the structure of society and the functions of the institutions in society, e.g. the family, the institution of education. An understanding of other basic concepts is necessary, e.g. the class structure. Sociology I should be recommended as a subject of study in the B.A. degree, apart from the teaching subjects required.

2. A short course *in social work* should be included in the school counsellor's *post-graduate curriculum.* This would enable the school counsellor to understand the social pathology that affects the adolescent, e.g. divorce; the loss of one or both parents; economic problems of the family; problems related to adoption; the unmarried mother, etc. This should be a six months' course and the academic lectures should run concurrently with practical work done in a social work agency under the supervision of the Department of Social Work at the University. Ten cases could be done over a period of six months in an agency like Child Welfare. This would involve both interviews in the office and work in the field, e.g. home visits. This would teach the trainee-counsellor how to interview people and the practical aspects of family problems and how to deal with them. This experience would be invaluable and moreover make the teacher-counsellor aware of the family in the context of the community and society. It would teach the young teacher-counsellor trainee about life circumstances different from his/her own.

3. A school counsellor should also have a *knowledge of the physiology of puberty* and the general growth cycle. A short course of lectures for examination purposes is recommended. This could be arranged with a lecturer from the Medical School.

4. A school counsellor should be able to counsel *relevant aspects of preventative medicine*, for example, communicable diseases and preventative screening for various malignant diseases. A short course of lectures should be arranged with the Medical School, e.g. senior girls should leave school knowing about the importance of regular gynaecological examinations to prevent cancer. This information must come from the counselling department in its preparation for "life-ahead". All pupils should know about the prevention of Bilharzia and Venereal Disease.

5. The above courses could be built into new post-graduate courses in counselling that are currently being introduced. The University of Natal has recently introduced Master's courses in Counselling Psychology, graduates of which qualify for registration with the Medical and Dental Council and from 1981 a B.Ed. in School Psychology is to be introduced.

6. *Qualified teachers* who intend to become teacher-counsellors and who have to complete a period of teaching before gaining admission to the teacher-counsellor's course, should be permitted *to obtain practical experience in counselling under supervision* during this period. This will enable them to judge whether they like the work and whether they feel they are suitable for it.

7. At present, *some young graduates* (without any social work training as recommended above) are not confident about *interviewing parents*. Built into their post-graduate course there should also be training in this field. In Durban, Natal, they could be trained at the Meyrick Bennett Centre. This

Centre employs a parent-counsellor[3)] who counsels parents of children with psychological and educational problems. Students on a counselling course could attend their case conferences, which would be an invaluable experience.

Methods of Assisting the Teacher-Counsellor.

1. The Administration Body in each of the four provinces should appoint *a visiting teacher-counsellor*. This should be a mature and experienced counsellor with whom the younger teacher-counsellors could discuss their cases and 'other problems'. Several of the teacher-counsellors interviewed in the twelve secondary schools which were investigated, felt the need for such a contact. This would be apart from the advice obtained from psychological services when a specific case is referred to them for further intervention.

2. *The Case Conference* is strongly recommended as a practice in the school counselling service. This would take the form of a monthly or bi-monthly meeting. Those attending would be the school counsellor, the principal of the school, possibly one of the deputy-principals and the form or subject teachers whose pupils have needed counselling during the month. If the cases warranted medical opinion, a doctor should be invited to attend and the school psychologist should also be present, when necessary. The pupil being discussed need only be referred to by first name and only essential personal matters concerning the family divulged. The main purpose would be for the teacher to know what the problem is so that she or he could co-operate with the counsellor in the 'treatment' or 'assistance given' to this pupil. The principal would also feel included in the counselling service and in no way usurped, since he could contribute to the discussion 'on the case'. Therefore, the main function of the Case Conference would be to establish effective communication between the counsellor and the staff. This conference must be strictly professional and no information gleaned at this conference must be used for *gossip*

in the staff room. The counsellor would be entitled to take *a very serious view* if he or she found this to be the case.

3. In addition to the school counsellor there should be *a school social worker* employed by the Education Department. The school social worker could possibly be a *District school social worker* and could serve more than one school in the area. His or her function would be to visit and investigate home circumstances and report on these to the school counsellor. He or she would also be in direct contact with outside agencies, e.g. Child Welfare. This 'social work' would in no way be a substitute for parents consulting school counsellors in the school. This would be invaluable in a school like B.6.[4)]

4. Information on Counselling to the School Staff. *Principals of secondary schools* and deputy-principals and other senior staff should be invited to attend a specially arranged conference concerning school counselling. The object would be to update their knowledge and information on various aspects of school guidance and counselling. It is far better (more tactful) to inform a group than to try and "teach" a particular principal about the counselling service. This should be an annual event. Educating the principal about counselling is essential if he or she is not in favour of counselling and regards it as an encroachment on the authority structure of the school. He must realize that counsellors are not advocates of hooliganism or undisciplined behaviour because they try to understand the problems of adolescence. There must be co-operation between the counsellor and the principal if counselling in the school is to be effective.

5. *Counsellors should arrange lectures for the staff* on topics which concern all teachers, e.g. adolescence, study methods, etc. It would be wiser for the teacher-counsellor to invite a guest speaker for this purpose to avoid the resentment of *"Who does he think he is, lecturing to us!"* Parents could also be invited. It should be emphasized that for the counselling service to function

effectively, every teacher must be alert to the problems of adolescents and become interested in their difficulties. Some pupils may prefer to consult a particular staff member rather than the teacher-counsellor. This should be accepted and encouraged by the teacher-counsellor, provided the teacher is regarded as a suitable person to assist in this important work and that the counsellor is consulted when specialized, professional advice is required. It could 'be dangerous' if the wrong type of teacher were consulted.

The Counsellor as an Educator.

1. *Group Counselling* is an excellent method of teaching and of learning. This is particularly true for *education on family life and for sex education.* The system of anonymous questions is useful. They are put into a box and dealt with at the next lesson. In this way reticent pupils can have problems answered without identifying themselves.

2. *Video recorders* which can be used on a television screen are useful in showing educational programmes (from overseas) to secondary school pupils in the Republic of South Africa. In this way world authorities can be brought into the school room and great advances can be made in education on family life, health education and on vocations and careers. Films should be used regularly. There are excellent films on a variety of suitable topics that can be obtained through the library service of schools in the Republic of South Africa.

3. *Television is an excellent medium for educating the public,* (both adolescents and parents) on selected topics on family life. It is a pity to waste this channel for educating the public. A special committee should be appointed to arrange programmes of this type for the benefit of parents and their families.

Special Topics requiring the Counsellor's Attention.

1. While attending secondary school, adolescent girls and boys (separately) should have counselling *on the facts concerning permissive sexual behaviour*. Both sides of the issue should be put forward: permissive behaviour and its results; conservative behaviour and its rewards. Permission would have to be obtained from parents, in some cases for their children to attend these discussions. The Counsellor of co-educational school 2 made a special request for the writer to recommend the foregoing.

2. Although school counsellors report that *drug abuse* is on the decrease, education on the harmful effects of drugs, cigarette smoking and alcohol should never stop. It is essential for the emerging adult to know the facts and effect of drug-taking, alcohol abuse and smoking.

Special Recommendations.

1. The writer wishes to make a special recommendation concerning schools in the category of B.6 described in the report of the twelve schools. The school population came from the *lower middle class*. A special commission should be appointed to examine the problems of adolescents of this and similar schools. According to the principal of B.6, forty percent of the school population do not live at home and are in need of care. They come to school hungry and wear torn clothes. The principal would welcome such a commission and would be more than willing to supply facts and figures to them. In the view of the writer and from experience gained at a similar school (while teaching in London in 1962 at Brentford Secondary Modern School) the following should be considered:

(a) A school dining area should be built with a fully equipped kitchen and a well balanced hot meal served at lunch time. Those who can afford to pay a nominal fee should do so; those who cannot should be given meals free.

(b) The administration should consider establishing a boarding school for such adolescents so that they can be properly cared for and housed. This would be far more economical than providing hospitalization for those who become malnourished and treatment for those who become delinquent, as a result of these poor social conditions. While the writer is aware of socio-economic problems of non-White children, White children in need also require improved facilities.

2. Concerning the Practical Class - *an educational phenomenon in schools in the Republic of South Africa.* This class is designed to cater for the adolescent who is not progressing well and the rationale given for its existence is that the pupil 'is better off' "passing" in class where the syllabus is easy than failing in the normal class. The writer regrets to report that in her experience these adolescents have not been fully investigated. Many in this category are not unintelligent. The writer makes so bold as to state that 'this class of pupil' is being *condemned to a way of life. The P. class* offers little for the future. The psychological damage to many of these pupils outweighs the possible good of "slower teaching." Is the teaching staff so sure of their judgement concerning each of these pupils? Has the enquiry into each case been searching enough? Or has the decision been taken on low examination marks and I.Q.? Have the parents been interviewed? Have the home circumstances and other possible reasons for lack of progress been taken into account? Both cases quoted in Chapter Five were boys from the Practical Class. The one was enuretic - a chronic bed-wetter whose problem was the root cause of his low marks and 'also a physical symptom' of other disturbances in the home background. The same applied to the narcoleptic, who was ill, not unintelligent. These cases should all be fully discussed and no adolescent should be put into the Practical Class without a full investigation of his or her case. The writer feels it would be far better if these pupils remained in normal classes and did certain subjects on standard grade. An alternative would be a class where "extra help" could be given to those with a weak subject. Research

is needed concerning the advisability of the Practical Class.

Research.

1. Research studies should be encouraged not only by the Human Sciences Research Council but also by the Provincial Administrations. Teacher-Counsellors for example, obtain a wealth of information that could be collected and analysed. They know the I.Q.'s of each matric pupil. It would be a simple matter to compare examination results with I.Q. test scores. The writer investigated a small sample of fifty pupils for her own interest. The result was interesting.[5)] Research should be encouraged. The Administration could offer an award for research done. In America this is common practice. The Republic of South Africa is not producing enough research in the field of the Sociology of Education, e.g. into social class and achievement.

Vocational Counselling.

In order to do vocational counselling successfully the counsellor requires the latest pamphlets, books and a library of information on occupations for the present and the future. In cases where there is only one counsellor in the school, this information could be collected by the school librarian. In a large school vocational guidance is so time-consuming that a counsellor could do only vocational guidance and be fully occupied, e.g. arranging lectures and films and doing the aptitude and interest tests and personal interviews on vocational guidance throughout the school.

> *"Since this stage of transition from school is crucial for every young person, it would seem ... that future expansion in the provision of careers/vocational guidance must include and should be appropriate to the needs of each pupil as an individual".* (Fletcher 1980; 92)

This would imply the establishment of a realistic vocational

preparation programme. The installation of a computer to store the data on vocation would be an invaluable asset. This would be in keeping with the electronic age.

The counselling department of a large school should have a clerical assistant. A great deal of valuable time is spent on administrative work that could be done by a secretary. (See Report on twelve schools.)

The question of the initial selection of counsellors for counsellor training requires consideration. In Medicine, the criterion for selection is academic achievement and not personality.[6] Jones (1977) regards personality of great importance in the selection of counsellors for training. The point is, however, that if the counsellor has intelligence and an interest in the work, the ability 'to handle people' develops as the counsellor gains experience. Only in exceptional cases should the personality of the applicant govern the question of selection.

The counsellor who does vocational guidance, group counselling and personal counselling should not be expected to teach and, for example, have to mark two hundred history scripts a week. (Tests done in the various classes.) This means that he or she cannot give full attention to counselling. In any case the dual role is not always advisable. The counsellor should be seen by both staff and pupils as outside of the authority structure of the school. He or she is not there to enforce discipline or 'report' pupils for punishment. This also means that he/she should not teach, and especially not be a class teacher.

Holden (1971) is of opinion that a great deal depends on the person. Some teacher-counsellors can establish themselves in both roles without causing a role conflict, others however, find this difficult.

The teacher-counsellors in the Republic of South Africa

should form a professional organization at a national level. There should be a South African Journal of Counselling and Teaching in which research and professional papers could be published. The writer realizes cost may be a problem, but this could possibly be overcome by advertisements (suitable to the publication). This would be in addition to regional journals like *Consulto*.

Concerning contact with Teacher-Counsellors in other Countries.

Teacher-counsellors in the Republic of South Africa should be given financial aid to attend international conferences, e.g. the writer notes that Jones (1977) refers to the sixth International Round Table Conference for the Advancement of Counselling held at Cambridge in April 1974. Such conferences no doubt occur regularly and it would be of immense benefit if South African teacher-counsellors were represented. It might be said that papers presented can be read in journals, nevertheless there must be a benefit from the personal interchange of ideas.[7)]

International Conference in the Republic of South Africa.

It would be beneficial if an international conference of sociologists of education and teacher-counsellors could be held in the Republic of South Africa. The financial 'backing' for such a conference would have to come from some philanthropic business organization or the Human Sciences Research Council. There is no better stimulation for research than an interchange of ideas on a personal level. Outstanding contributors to the field such as Olive Banks, Jean Floud, Ioan Davies, Basil Bernstein, Michael Young, not forgetting Hargreaves, Musgrave, Maurice Craft, Lytton and Marland and Carl Weinberg could be invited to present papers. It is time educators and sociologists in the Republic of South Africa took the cue from the medical profession and organized such conferences. Counselling itself and research done by sociologists of education and educationalists are equally as important as medical research.

Finally the writer recommends that cognisance is taken of the results of the questionnaire obtained from the 910 first year students of the University of Natal and the Natal Technikon. As a result of the analysis of the data 62 percent of those who did not regard the service as a success gave the following reasons.

> *"... failure to communicate accurate information in a way which showed empathy and understanding of adolescent problems".*

They however saw a great benefit in a professional counsellor whom they could trust and who gave a continuous counselling service. The value of research into the views of adolescents concerning the guidance service is self evident. Cognisance should also be taken of the value of peer counselling. Hamblin's view is worthy of note:

> *"Without peer counselling, not only is the system of counselling incomplete but we have deprived ourselves of the most potent agency for achieving our aims. When we use pupils, then, strangely enough the role of the counsellor does become the perfection of the role of the teacher".* (1980; 327-328)

The following article from *Tonus* (January 1981) describes the value of peer counselling.

Traditional anti-smoking education a failure

From Medical World News

STANFORD, CALIF. — Traditional antismoking education doesn't work because it's mostly pedantic lectures on long-term perils, suggest researchers here. High-school students are better served, they find, by focusing on smoking's short-term physiological effects, teaching resistance to social pressure, and reinforcing such instruction with small, student-led brain-storming sessions.

In three schools in this area, 500 tenth-graders took part in 45-minute sessions along these lines for four consecutive days. They measured one another's skin temperature, blood pressure, pulse rate, exhaled carbon monoxide, and lung capacity, computing the averages for smokers and nonsmokers.

Four months later, 23.6% admitted they smoked, down from the 29.2% tallied before the experiment. In contrast, the proportion increased from 26.3% to 30.4% among 400 tenth-graders in two control schools. There, three days of conventional antismoking instruction concentrated on long-term risks and included no instruction on resisting society's pressures, reported the Stanford Heart Disease Prevention Programme's **Dr. Cheryl Perry** and her colleagues in July's *American Journal of Public Health*.

And with six hours of training, teams of high-school students can psychologically "inoculate" junior-high-school classes against pressure to begin smoking, Dr. Perry's group adds. In one school, students got six sessions of such inoculation in the seventh grade, followed by two sessions the year after. They were taught to "respond to ads implying that women who smoke are 'liberated' by saying, 'She's not really liberated if she's hooked on tobacco'."

In the 21 months after the project started, these youngsters became smokers at a rate of only 3.2% a year. That compares with 8.4% among their peers at a neighbouring school who got "intensive" health education but no training in resisting prosmoking influences.

(27/1/9/80)

Concluding Note.

In the last quarter of the twentieth century, counsellors are creating *"a new kind of school experience"* (Marland 1980; 226). Excerpts from the literature reveal that in all three countries considered in this dissertation, efforts are on going to improve the existing Guidance and Counselling service.

In the Republic of South Africa the current Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into education (ordered by the Prime Minister) in 1980 is in part concerned with guidance.[8] It is possible that new proposals for guidance, and proposed changes in the Education Acts, will arise from this investigation.

The Subcommittee for the School Guidance Syllabus which is part of the Work Committee for Guidance 007, according to Niels Lindhard, one of the members of the Subcommittee, have found that divergent views exist as to the function of the Guidance Service.

> *"Guidance is seen by some as the means of moulding the youth of the nation into well functioning copies of their parents.*
> *Others see guidance as the tool for helping young people to develop themselves into independent and individual adults trained to choose their own future path.*
> *Some see guidance as the tool of the System to keep people in their places and to feed the economic needs of the country with individuals as scheduled units of manpower".* (October 1980)

According to Niels Lindhard, the Guidance Syllabus Subcommittee wishes to plan for a system which can be acceptable to the holders of all these opinions, as well as to the guidance teachers and to the young people who are to be helped by guidance.

Among the suggestions for improving the service in the Republic of South Africa, which will be for all pupils, (including

those in Black schools),

> *"is a flexible curriculum which can be freely administered in accordance with the cultural values of each school".* (Lindhard 1980)

At present in January 1981, the Subcommittee for the School Guidance Syllabus, which is part of the Works Committee for Guidance 007 is busy revising the initial draft proposal of the new syllabus for guidance in the Republic of South Africa.[9)]

In 1980, in the United States of America, the founding fathers of guidance are concerned with the professional status of the school counsellor. Angelo V. Boy and Gerald Pine, both Professors of Education, University of New Hampshire, Durham, in an article entitled, *A New Approach to Defining the Counselor's Role* state:

> *"About two decades ago, the proper role of counselor was hotly debated on a national, state, and local level. Today, the issue regarding the counselor's proper role, although better clarified at the national and state level ... is still an issue of concern for the practicing counselor".*

They are of opinion that the vast majority of 'counselors' still find themselves immersed in a wide variety of activities that are administrative, managerial and clerical in nature. Far too many 'counselors' still find themselves professionally unfulfilled. They suggest that,

> *"... the counselor and administrator enter into a behavioral contract with each other - a behavioral contract in which each defines his or her role to the other in simple, declarative sentences ..."*

These authors believe that by doing this,

> *"the counselor will be able to work out a clear and uncomplicated role relationship with an administrator*

and the administrator's role will be clearly understood by the counselor". (*The School Counselor*, January 1980, Vol. 27; 156-157)

In Great Britain, in an article entitled *School Counselling: ahead of its time?* in the British Journal, *The Counsellor*, Spring Edition, Vol. 2 (5) 1979. Don Courtman, (Counsellor, Walbottle High School) states that,

"contrary to the view purveyed by some University departments who train school counsellors, the school counsellor more than a decade after his introduction is still not well understood and well thought after by schools who do not have one appointed to them".
(In England the local authority makes the decision to appoint counsellors.)

He maintains that scepticism, suspicion, distrust and even hostility too often are seen to be reactions to the proposals for the appointment of counsellors. This, Courtman attributes to the fact that some teachers *"are operating on a different educational level ... and are using a different educational currency".* They have not yet grasped the concept of counselling, that contains *"the implication that schools should become therapeutic communities dedicated to promoting the mental health of everybody who both works and studies in them".*

He however states:

"The fact that schools who have school counsellors talk so enthusiastically about them, ... there is hope for the idea, for the counsellor, for the teacher and for education ..." (Spring Edition, Vol. 2 (5), 1979; 16-17)

In this dissertation the writer set out to analyze some aspects of school guidance in meeting the demands of contemporary Western society. The essence of this dissertation has been to show that many aspects of reality are significant for the progress of

the individual, and that cognisance must be taken of the social as well as the psychological and physical causes for variations in the behaviour and attainment of adolescents at school. This is essential if the adolescent is to leave school a well adjusted individual who has attained to the maximum of his potential. Initiators of education programmes must realize that,

> *"A secondary school is not merely a preparation for Life but actually part of Life".* (Marland 1980; 226)

In the contemporary Western world the adolescent must not only be regarded as a pupil at school, but as a member of a family within a community which is part of society.

NOTES.

1) Source: T. Burns, *Sociological Explanation*, British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 18 (1967; 357).

2) The writer is aware of the critical (radical) view held by the Neo-Marxists. The latter and other radical writers disagree violently with the structural functionalism of Davis and Moore, seeing it as an apology for the status-quo and an example of ruling class ideology is of the elites who thereby have their elite position legitimated.

3) The writer was the parent-counsellor at Meyrick Bennett Centre for approximately three years.

4) See Report on B.6 school in the account of the twelve schools investigated.

5) A student with an I.Q. of 140 passed the Natal Senior Certificate with a D aggregate. There were five boys with I.Q.'s from 100-110 who obtained merit passes (1973).

6) Some authorities are of opinion that medical schools are realizing the folly of this. They need doctors who are interested in people and not just physical illnesses which selection on achievement alone has produced.

7) Grants are available from the Human Sciences Research Council if people are interested to go abroad and present papers.

8) This investigation was the Prime Minister's response to disturbances in Black schools concerning their education (from 1977).

9) See Appendix i - for the initial draft proposal of the new syllabus for guidance in the Republic of South Africa.

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ANNEXURE A.

THEORIES OF COUNSELLING.

There is a vast body of American literature on counselling theory and technique. The main debate between the American theorists, concerns the amount of direction the counsellors should give the counselee or client in each interview. It is generally agreed that the quality of the relationship between the counsellor and the counselee is of fundamental importance; that among the goals of counselling are self-understanding, self-awareness, self-acceptance and self determination.

The question is are these goals best achieved by non-directive, directive or electic counselling techniques?

1. Non-directive counselling is one of the main theories of counselling which is practised by many school and other counsellors. This was put forward by the contemporary psychologist Carl R. Rogers. He is regarded as not only an effective clinical psychologist, but also as a gifted counsellor. In 1942 he wrote, *Counselling and Psychotherapy;* in 1951, *Client-centeredTherapy;* in 1959, *A Theory of Therapy Personality and Interpersonal Relationships;* and in 1961, *On Becoming a Person* was published. His work is still on going. In the *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, Brian Thorpe of the Student Counselling Service, University of East Anglia, commenting on a new book on group discussions remarked,

> *"... that few educators have the creative literary skills of a Carl Rogers ..."* (Vol. 8, No. 1. January 1980; 110)

His work is therefore still on going and is regarded as "a classic", by many practitioners of counselling. Reference to Rogers' theory and methods of counselling are referred to time and again in the literature, e.g. by Patterson (1962), Lytton (1969), Munson (1971), Shertzer and Stone (1971) and Marland (1974).

As long ago as 1942, Rogers defined counselling as follows:

> *"Effective counselling consists of a definitely structured permissive relationship which allows the client to gain an understanding of himself to a degree which enables him to take positive steps in the light of his new orientation".*

The above hypothesis has a natural corollary which states:

> *"that all the techniques should aim toward developing, this free and permissive relationship, this understanding of self in the counselling and other relationships and this tendency towards positive initiated action".* (Rogers 1942; 18)

Inspired by the work of Carl Rogers, non-directive counselling puts the onus of direction very much on the individual; the client must be allowed *"to talk about what he wants to talk about".*[1] The relationship between the counsellor and his client is in itself therapeutic and brings the freedom for the client to make his own decisions and grow towards maturity. The above mentioned literature contains details of this method, as advocated by Rogers and his associates.

2. Trait and Factor approaches, are less formally called directive or *counsellor-centred approaches.* This approach was begun by E.G. Williamson in the work, *Counseling Adolescents* (1950) and also is discussed in *Vocational Counseling: Trait-Factor Theory,* in Bufford Stefflre's edition *Theories of Counseling* (1965 as reprinted in 1972; 165). Directive counsellors are more purposeful. They lead the client through an examination of his problem. They go through the possible consequences of various courses of action and help the client try out new solutions. The client is still making the decisions, but the choice is largely directed by the experience and the expertise of the counsellor.

3. The Electic System of Counselling. Electic counsellors use whatever method they feel *best suits the needs of their clients;* arguing that some pupils, because of their age, inexperience or personality, need more specific help in making a decision than others.

Guidance as an electic system cannot be identified with a single originator, but is represented in the views of Strang (1964), Traxler (1957), Erikson Clifford (1950) and Froelich and Darley (1952). The word 'electic' means selecting, choosing appropriate doctrines from various sources or systems.

Ruth Strang's (1964) views on the rationale for the use of electicism are worth considering. Ruth Strang sees Guidance as positive in nature. She is of opinion that school experiences should be selected and incorporated into total life experiences.

The core of Guidance to Ruth Strang is

1. to know the individual; and
2. to know educational opportunities and to help the individual make appropriate choices through group work and counselling.

The electic professional believes that he can aid the individual in learning about himself. From his knowledge of perception, development, learning and personality, the electic counselor develops a repertoire of methods, and selects the most appropriate for the particular problem and specific individual.

Anne Jones (1977; 39) is of opinion that more recently client problems have also been seen as learning problems and the counsellor's job has been defined as *helping his client learn more effective ways of solving his own problems*, that is to learn more adaptive and constructive modes of behaviour. This viewpoint was stated by J. Krumbolz in his work, *Revolution in Counseling* published in 1966.

It can be seen that theories of counselling have much in common and their differences are mostly in emphasis. They have as their basis the interaction between two people, one of whom is trying to help the other. The writer is in agreement with Anne Jones (1977) that the success of the interview, or counselling session, will depend above all on the personalities of the two persons concerned and to a lesser extent on theories and techniques.

> *"Ultimately the counsellor functions not according to a book, but according to himself, yet in a disciplined informed and professional manner".* (Jones 1977; 40)

It has been noted by Jones (1977; 40), Munson (1971; 116) and others that the ingredients required in a counselling relationship are not exclusive to that type of relationship. They might be found in any relationship between two individuals. The fact that they are often missing is the root of many problems between people. These ingredients are *trust, mutual liking, respect, tolerance and genuine concern.*

> *"In the school setting the kind of relationship which exists between head and pupils, teachers and pupils, teachers and teachers, pupils and pupils, teachers and parents, affects not only the atmosphere of the school but the amount of education that goes on".* (Jones 1977; 40)

Comment.

Teachers would do well if they practised the basic tenents of counselling in their relationships with pupils. Counsellors need to advise teachers and parents *to stop and think* in their relationship with pupils and their adolescent children. If they would encourage instead of crush, praise instead of criticize, believe instead of belittle, listen to a viewpoint instead of always advising and admonishing, communicate instead of co-exist, then counselling would be an ongoing in the home and the school and the specific need for counsellors would be reduced.

The Psychological Bases of Guidance.

Munson is of opinion that

> *"most school counselors lack an understanding of the psychological bases of Guidance* (1971; 50).

He attributes this to two factors:

1. Guidance has been conceived as essentially *vocational*. The Americans have used Frank Parsons as the model for secondary school guidance. This method excluded an extensive background in psychology.
2. Most counsellors have been *recruited from the ranks of classroom teachers*, their background in psychology, until recently, was limited to those courses that were included in programmes of teacher education, plus any additional courses required to qualify as guidance teachers.

   "But as counselor education programs have expanded, more emphasis has been placed on providing courses, which will help the school counselor to better understand human growth and behavior". (Munson 1971; 51)

Three forces in psychology have been categorized by many authors, e.g. Paul Bruce in his work, *Three Forces in Psychology and their Ethical and Educational Implications* (1966), and Carl Rogers in his work, *Towards a Science of the Person* (1964; 109) cited by Munson (1971; 51). Rogers states that,

> *"These resemble three ocean currents flowing side by side, mingling, with no clear line of demarcation yet definitely different".*

These forces are *Scientific Psychology; Psychoanalytic Psychology; Phenomenological Self Existential Psychology.*

Scientific Psychology is the oldest and classical system of psychology. The psychological thinking of this section is represented in the theoretical views of Carl R. Rogers as he promulgated them

in his *client-centered therapy*.

Psychoanalytic Psychology was founded by Sigmund Freud in Europe in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Freud's ideas were introduced in the United States of America in the first quarter of the twentieth century and were applied to educational practice. His ideas became popular in the Western world in the 1920's and 1930's. They challenged some of the existing notions about the development and behaviour of man and led to a form of therapy known as psycho-analysis.
Phenomenological Self Existential Psychology is a body of knowledge which is a combination of forces. This conglomerate of self, existential and phenomenological psychologies, emphasizes the individual and the inner world of his feelings and perceptions. (Munson 1971; 54)

Phenomenology has grown side by side with self-psychology. Both systems focus on the individual. Both are concerned with the person and his experiencing - assigning these the highest priority.

It is the belief of the writer that an understanding of the theories of human behaviour is essential for the school counsellor. He will then have the appropriate body of knowledge to translate theory into practice. Counselling is a complex phenomenon and requires a knowledge not only of Social Psychology but the structure of society and the norms of the community in which the counselling process is occurring.

The above are some of the recent statements concerning counselling theory and techniques. Extensive discussion and examination of counselling theory are not possible within the confines of this dissertation. however, it appeared necessary to identify some of the counselling theories.

NOTES.

1) The word "client" is used to describe the receiver of professional services. The client wants to believe that the professional knows what is best for him. The school counsellor is expected to provide his services to "all the people's children" but the range of counselling problems within the typical school counsellor's case load may exceed that which he is qualified to work on. For this reason some school counsellors prefer the term "counsellee" to the word "client", the latter implying more professionalism. "Client" also connotes a clinical-type setting. (Pietrofesa and Vriend 1971).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A.

STATEMENT OF POLICY FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELORS

AMERICAN SCHOOL COUNSELOR ASSOCIATION

Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors

American School Counselor Association

PREFACE

The purpose of this document is to identify and clarify the role of the secondary school counselor as perceived by the membership of the American School Counselor Association, and to commit to public record certain philosophic tenets and operational conditions entailed. School counselors recognize the evolutionary status of their profession and actively promote its growth and thereby change. They view their past development, recognize the challenge of the future, and firmly assert their distinct professional standing. That this document is not an accurate characterization of conditions as they may presently exist is recognized. The function of this A.S.C.A. Policy Statement is to describe what should be, rather than what is.

Source: Reprinted from J. W. Loughary, R. O. Stripling, and P. W. Fitzgerald (eds.), *Counseling: A Growing Profession* (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1965), pp. 94–99. Used by permission of A.P.G.A.

PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

While secondary school counselors acknowledge the historical distinctions between educational, vocational, and personal counseling, they also recognize the limitations of such distinctions. School counselors see all counseling as concerned with the complete person and thus inevitably personal and psychological in nature.

School Counselor is a term used in this policy statement to designate a counselor working in a secondary school setting, concerned with and accepting a responsibility for assisting all pupils, and having as his major concern the developmental needs and problems of youth. Counseling is perceived as involving a dynamic relationship between counselor and counselee, and thus the school counselor accepts the responsibility of involving himself in the lives of pupils with clear and humble knowledge of the implications.

School counseling is one of the several pupil personnel services, and the school counselor works within a pupil personnel framework. School counselors have much in common with counselors in nonschool settings and with other pupil personnel and instructional staff members. However, significant differences do exist between school counselors and each of these groups in regard to the nature of professional responsibilities, competencies, and preparation. The school counselor claims professional identity in the fields of counseling and education. He is an integral part of the school staff, offering both special and general services from the counseling profession.

PROFESSIONAL RATIONALE

Human development and maturity are sought with the help of one's family, the school, and society in general. As a member of the school staff the school counselor believes that instruction and instructional type experiences are not in themselves sufficient for achieving the school-based educational and personal development necessary for each individual in our democratic society. Because of the nature of adolescence, the pressures to

conform, the attitudes of many adults toward adolescents, and the inevitable evaluative aspects of various relationships the pupil experiences—whether with adults or peers—the adolescent seldom has an opportunity to view himself clearly, honestly, and without need to protect and defend himself.

The counselor is dedicated to the idea that most pupils will enhance and enrich their personal development and self-fulfillment by means of making more intelligent decisions if given the opportunity to experience an accepting, nonevaluating relationship in which one is helped to better understand himself, the environment he perceives, and the relationship between these. Counseling is essentially such a relationship. The school counselor views himself as a person on the school staff with the professional competencies, behavioral science understandings, philosophical orientation, and position within the school necessary to provide such help to pupils.

The school counselor is not, nor presumably shall he ever be, bound to accept any one philosophy regarding himself and the society and world in which he lives. There are certain philosophical tenets, however, held by all professional school counselors, and consistent with many philosophical positions. These tenets are concerned with the counselor's perception of the pupil, school, society, and himself; they provide the foundation for whatever operational frame of reference he employs.

The Pupil

1. Each pupil is a unique individual. His behavior is purposeful and represents his attempt to develop in society as he perceives it.

2. Each pupil has a right to acceptance as a human being, regardless of the nature and results of his behavior, beliefs, and inherent characteristics.

3. Each pupil has a right to individual self-development and self-fulfillment. The extent and nature of self-fulfillment is directly a function of the extent to which the individual possesses real and informed personal freedom.

4. Each pupil has a right to self-direction as well as responsibility for making decisions and living with the consequences of these decisions.

The School

1. The school in a democracy has as its basic purpose the education and development of all pupils for individual fulfillment.

2. The primary method of the school is group instruction. The school counselor contributes to the school's attempt to educate all children by providing services which directly support instruction and those responsible for it. The school counselor also contributes to the total psycho-social development of pupils by providing direct noninstructional services to them.

3. Because the school is a democratic institution using group objectives and methods, and because learning, maturing, and self-realization are inevitably individual processes, a paradox or conflict for the student is implicit within our educational structure. Therefore, the school counselor recognizes such conflict as a natural part of the educative process in a democracy and sees the mediation of this conflict as a very important part of his role.

Society

1. Change and the potential for change are inherent in a democratic society. Thus, the individual who is to live with personal satisfaction and who is to achieve self-fulfillment in a democratic society must understand not only the nature of his changing society, but also the various methods by which he as an individual can best adapt to change and best adapt change to himself.

2. A democratic society provides a great many resources and opportunities for development to individuals during their life span. Each individual needs the competence to distinguish and select those resources and opportunities most appropriate for him.

3. The strength and health of a democratic society is ultimately dependent upon the contribution each of its members makes to others. If in a democratic society each individual is to be free to decide for himself the contributions he will attempt to make, then it is essential that each individual have substantial

self-understanding and personal perspectives on which he can base his decisions.

Self

The school counselor assists others to develop according to their values in a democratic society of which the counselor is also a member. The counselor attempts to recognize clearly his own values and needs, and strives effectively to distinguish them from those of his counselees.

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

The school counselor assumes a variety of responsibilities or roles within the context of educational systems. These can be viewed from several perspectives, and consequently can be stated in various terms. The membership of the American School Counselor Association presumes that the professional identity of a school counselor must derive from the unique social service which it is his role to perform within the context of educational purpose and structure. Therefore, the perspective used here in outlining the school counselor's various roles is that of the pupil needs which he serves. Some of these needs involve direct services to the pupil, while others are met by services provided to teachers, parents, and the general community. The school counselor has the responsibility to—

1. Assist each pupil to meet the need to understand himself in relation to the social and psychological world in which he lives. This implies helping each pupil to understand his aptitudes, interests, attitudes, abilities, opportunities for self-fulfillment, and the interrelationships among these.
2. Assist each pupil to meet the need of accepting (defined as being able to behave consistent with) his aptitudes, interests, attitudes, abilities, and opportunities for self-fulfillment.
3. Assist each pupil to meet the need to develop personal decision-making competency. Included is the responsibility of assuring that the pupil's opportunities for self-understanding and self-fulfillment are not restricted by the group consideration and processes inherent in schools.
4. Assist all members of the school staff to understand the importance of the individual pupil and to provide information, material, and consultative assistance aimed at supporting their efforts to understand pupils.
5. Determine the influence of the school program on pupil educational and psycho-social development, and to convey such information to other staff members.
6. Inform other staff members of significant changes in the school and nonschool environments which have implications for instructions, the psycho-social well-being of pupils, and to participate in related program development.
7. Assist parents to understand the developmental progress of their child, his needs, and environmental opportunities, for purposes of increasing their ability to contribute to their child's development.
8. Interpret to the community the importance of consideration for the individual and the contribution of the school counseling program to that end.
9. Promote in the community nonschool opportunities necessary for pupil development.
10. Use and/or promote community resources designed to meet unusual or extreme needs of pupils which are beyond the responsibility of the school.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

There is no single best program for developing the school counselor competencies listed above. Counselor education programs vary in nature from institution to institution, and will continue to vary as counselor educators and supervisors experiment with new methods and procedures in their attempts to develop increasingly stronger programs. The school counselor endorses and strongly encourages the continued search for improved preparation programs. Thus, he views the professional preparation criteria listed below as appropriate at this time, realizing that changes in knowledge and conditions will inevitably result in criteria modifications.

1. School counselor education is graduate education and should result in the counselor receiving as a minimum (*a*) a

master's degree in counseling from an accredited institution, and (*b*) appropriate professional certification as a counselor from the state in which he is employed.

2. It is conceivable and reasonable that more than one level of certification can exist. It is conceivable and reasonable that more than one level of professional preparation and certification should exist. The two-year program of graduate study for counselors, including supervised counseling and pupil personnel services experiences in a school setting, is recognized as a desirable goal.

3. School counselor certification should represent legal professional status in a state and should have as one requirement the endorsement of the counselor education program in which the counselor obtained his preparation.

4. School counselor education programs should include the following components:

a) A core of professional study consisting of the following elements: (1) developmental and educational psychology, (2) counseling theory and procedure, (3) educational and psychological appraisal, (4) group theory and procedures, (5) the psychology and sociology of work and vocational development, (6) the functions and methodology of research, and (7) the legal and professional ethics of counseling education.

b) Provision for developing a background in the humanities and the social, behavioral, and biological sciences according to the particular needs and developmental status of each counselor candidate. School counselor candidates lacking a broad undergraduate background in the physical and natural sciences, the behavioral sciences, and the humanities should correct such deficiencies in addition to, rather than in lieu of, the graduate-level education referred to here.

c) Supervised experiences such as laboratory, practicum, and internship work.

d) Provision for developing a working understanding and appreciation of the school's curriculum and the psychological and sociological climate of in-school learning situations.

5. School counselor education programs should continue to develop and refine selection procedures reflecting the philosophical ideas stated earlier and be consistent with the intellectual and emotional prerequisites implied in the counselor competences listed.

6. School counselor education programs should be systematic, yet planned individually in regard to each candidate's particular background and needs.

7. School counselor education does not terminate with the completion of a formal program, but continues throughout the career of the counselor. Therefore, counselors have a responsibility to plan, implement, and participate in in-service and other post-certification programs and study designed to maintain and promote professional competency.

PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT

The contributions of the school counselor to pupils, school, and society are dependent upon the existence of an environment consistent with his responsibilities. Such an environment includes both psychological and material conditions of work.

Psychological conditions of work refers essentially to a climate within which the school counselor has freedom to exercise his competencies on a professional level. Characteristics of this psychological environment include favorable interpersonal relations among the school staff, a permissive atmosphere within the counseling program, and forward-looking administrative and personnel policies. Physical conditions of work include appropriate clerical and secretarial assistance, office facilities and equipment, and guidance materials of various kinds. The following are the principal characteristics of a psychological and physical environment which will assist the school counselors in fulfilling his professional responsibilities.

1. The school counselor's communication with pupils and parents must be considered confidential. In matters of communication and ethics, the counselor accepts as his guide the Ethical Standards of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

2. The counselor should be free from teaching, administra-

tive, and clerical assignments which would interfere with fulfilling his professional responsibilities as a counselor.

3. School organization should reflect the distinct roles of the counselor by providing high-level administrative representation, separate budgetary consideration, appropriate opportunities for in-service education and research, and program evaluation. Professional supervision and coordination with other pupil personnel services are essential to the counselor's total effectiveness.

4. The counselor should have sufficient opportunities to participate in program planning and curriculum development and other school development efforts. Avenues of communication should exist so that school counselors may interpret their efforts and programs to pupils, teachers, administrators, and parents. In addition, the counselor should have the freedom and responsibility to apprise administrators if and when the school program is insensitive to the individuality of pupils.

5. The school counselor should have physical facilities appropriate to his work, including a private counseling room, storage facility for pupil records and guidance information, and pupil waiting area.

6. The school counselor should have paid clerical assistance and equipment consistent with his particular assigned responsibilities and existing technology.

7. Provisions should exist which enable the counselor to initiate and have systematic counseling and conference appointments with pupils during school hours without interfering with the planned work of teachers. The number of pupils for whom a counselor is responsible should be realistic and consistent with his unique responsibilities.

8. Definite criteria, consistent with this policy statement, should be used as a basis for counselor selection. The counselor should be employed in a full-time counseling position. Often, employment should extend beyond the school year.

These conditions can be developed and maintained only through the joint efforts of counselors and school administrators. The school administrator assists the counselor to facilitate total counseling and guidance services within a school through his understanding, support, and leadership.

SUMMARY

The professional identity of a school counselor must derive from the unique social contribution which is his role within the context of educational purpose and structure. The perspective used by the American School Counselor Association in outlining the role of the school counselor is that of the pupil needs which he serves. Some of these needs involve direct services to pupils, while others are met by services provided to the school staff, parents and the general community. In brief, these needs consist of—

A. The need for the pupil to understand and accept himself, develop personal decision-making competencies, and formulate and implement plans for his further development.

B. The need for the school staff to understand the importance of the individual pupil and for assistance in making appropriate educational provisions for his development.

C. The needs of teachers and parents for information regarding the development of individuals and groups of pupils.

D. The need for various kinds of assistance from nonschool sources for some pupils.

The counselor implements his responsibilities for meeting these needs by employing his professional competencies in two areas: (1) counseling, and (2) related guidance services.

Counseling is concerned with promoting the pupil's self-understanding and self-acceptance, facilitating personal decision-making and planning, and the resolving of special problems. Counseling can be characterized as a confidential, accepting, nonevaluative, permissive, face-to-face relationship, in which the counselor uses his professional knowledge and competencies to assist the pupil to resolve better those problems and issues which he would normally resolve less satisfactorily without counseling assistance. The responsibility for decisions and plans in counseling rests primarily with the pupil, with due respect for his level of maturity.

Related guidance services include:

APPENDIX B.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR

AMERICAN SCHOOL COUNSELOR ASSOCIATION

The Role of the Secondary School Counselor

American School Counselor Association

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR—WHO HE IS

A secondary school counselor is:

1. A professional educator with specialized, graduate-level training in counseling and related guidance services whose major concern is for the normal, developmental needs and problems of all the pupils for whom he is responsible.
2. An integral part of the school staff, a member of the "pupil personnel services" team.
3. A person who is dedicated to the idea that a pupil will enhance and enrich his personal development and self-fulfillment if given an opportunity to experience an accepting, nonevaluative relationship in which he is helped to better understand himself and his environment and the relationship between them.
4. A person who perceives:
   each pupil as a unique individual who has a right to acceptance, self-development, self-fulfillment, and self-di-

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rection and who has a responsibility for making decisions and living with the consequences of these decisions.

the school as a democratic institution which may, in its necessary emphasis on group instruction and variety of program, create some conflicts for individual students, the mediation of which is an important part of his role.

society as an ever-changing, complex structure offering endless challenges and opportunities to its individual members, the strength of which is ultimately dependent upon the contributions of each of its members.

himself as a member of the school staff with the professional competencies, behavioral science understandings, philosophical orientation, and position within the school necessary to provide professional counseling and related guidance services to pupils.

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR—WHAT HE DOES

1. He helps to plan and develop the guidance program and the curriculum in relation to the needs of pupils.

2. Through the counseling relationship, he helps each pupil to:

understand himself in relation to the social and psychological world in which he lives.

accept himself as he is.

develop personal decision-making competencies.

resolve special problems.

3. He assumes the role of leader and consultant in the school's program of pupil appraisal by:

coordinating the accumulation and use of meaningful information about each pupil.

interpreting information about pupils to them, to their parents, to teachers, and to others who are professionally concerned.

helping to identify pupils with special abilities or needs.

4. He collects and disseminates to pupils and their parents information concerning:

school offerings.

opportunities for further education.

careers and career training opportunities.

5. He coordinates the use of services available beyond those he can provide by:

making pupils and their parents aware of the availability of such services.

making appropriate referrals.

maintaining liaison and cooperative working relationships with other pupil personnel specialists and with agencies in the community where special services are available.

encouraging the development and/or extension of community agencies for meeting special pupil needs that are not already adequately met.

6. He assists in providing placement services for pupils by:

planning with teachers and administrators for the grouping and scheduling of pupils.

helping pupils make appropriate choices of school programs and develop long-range plans of study.

helping them make the transition from one school level to another, from one school to another and from school to employment successfully.

coordinating his placement work with others for the most effective use of the placement services available in the school and the community.

7. He helps parents by:

acting as a consultant to them regarding the growth and development of their children.

providing them with information about their children (with due regard to the child's desire for confidentiality).

providing them with information about educational and occupational opportunities and requirements and about counseling programs and related guidance services available to them and their children.

assisting them to develop realistic perception of their children's development in relation to their potentialities.

8. He serves as a consultant to members of the administrative and teaching staffs in the area of guidance by:

sharing appropriate individual pupil data with them (again with due regard for the pupil's desire for confidentiality).

helping them to identify pupils with special needs and problems.

participating in the in-service training programs.

assisting teachers to secure materials and develop procedures for a variety of classroom group guidance experiences.

9. He conducts or cooperates with others in conducting local research related to pupil needs and how well school services are meeting those needs by:

contacting graduates and dropouts.

comparing scholastic aptitudes with achievement, selection of courses of study, and post high school experiences.

studying occupational trends in the community.

evaluating the school's counseling and guidance services.

10. He carries out a program of public relations by:

participating in programs of various community groups.

furnishing information regarding the counseling and guidance programs to local publishers, radio and TV stations.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR— HIS WORKING ENVIRONMENT

The contributions of the secondary school counselor to pupils, school, and society are dependent upon the existence of certain environmental conditions.

First, he should be free from administrative and clerical assignments which would interfere with his responsibilities as a professional school counselor.

Second, he should have the physical facilities appropriate to his work. This would include a private office which offers visual as well as auditory privacy, and provides a relaxed, comfortable atmosphere in which he may communicate with pupils and others in confidence and without interruption.

Third, he should have paid clerical assistance and such equipment as will help him to carry out his functions as a counselor and guidance specialist.

Fourth, he should have the opportunity to initiate and carry on conferences with pupils during school hours but with due regard for their academic programs.

Fifth, his employment should be on a full-time basis and should extend beyond the normal school year. His salary should be commensurate with his level of training and experience and should compensate him for the time he works beyond the regular school year.

Sixth, the number of pupils for whom a counselor is responsible should be such that he can carry out his functions effectively for all of them. It is recommended that this pupil load should not exceed 250 to 300 pupils per counselor.

Seventh, he should have a time schedule which will enable him to grow professionally and which will permit him to pursue such activities as research, participation in professional conferences, and visitation of other schools, colleges, places of employment, etc.

Eighth, budgetary provision should be made that will allow the school counselor to have the equipment, materials, travel allowances, etc., necessary for him to carry out his functions.

Ninth, he should have access to professional supervision and consultation as needed. His role as a member of the pupil personnel services team, as well as his relationship to other members of the team and to teachers and administrators, should be firmly stated.

APPENDIX C.

THE PHYSIOLOGY OF PUBERTY.

ADOLESCENCE, a term for the process of growing from childhood into adulthood, or the period of development from onset of puberty to maturity. It is a transitional stage in the "biosocial" development of the individual and is marked by physical and social changes. The period is not associated with any precise number of years but begins approximately when the first signs of pubescence (process of maturing sexually) appear and continues until full physical and physiological growth is reached. It lasts usually from six to ten years. During this period young people must begin to think seriously about themselves, their future, and life in general; however, they characteristically vacillate between childish and adult behavior.

Adolescence, a time of rapid biological change and a transition period in man's developmental cycle, is subject to the stresses and strains inherent in such status. The concept of self must be restructured to conform to new physical and social changes. Cultural forces begin to impinge very strongly upon the individual, subjecting him to its demands and requirements. During this period, he must accomplish a number of tasks or goals necessary for the satisfaction of his growing need for self-assertion.

Physical Aspects. The individual matures in a variety of growth dimensions. It is necessary to understand clearly the difference between adolescence and puberty so as not to confuse these growth aspects. Puberty refers to sexual maturation and the group of bodily changes associated with it, including the primary and secondary sex characteristics. It covers only a limited portion of the growth period. Adolescence includes, in addition to the physical aspects of puberty, all the nonphysical dimensions associated with this phase of development.

The reproductive organs attain maturity, signifying that the individual is now capable of reproducing his kind. In human beings the age at which puberty is attained is subject to great variation. More than 50 per cent of American girls reach the menarche (first menstruation) by the twelfth to fourteenth birthday, while a few menstruate as early as nine or ten years of age and some as late as their seventeenth or eighteenth year. In boys, puberty is reached at thirteen or fourteen.

With sexual maturity come other physical changes engendered by the appearance of the secondary sex characteristics in both sexes. These changes are far more dramatic in girls; there is a gradual change in physique, with the development of the breasts, widening of the pelvis, deposit of fat on the hips, and the appearance of hairs on the body and in the pubic area. In boys the appearance of pubic hair and increased hair on face and body, nocturnal emissions, and voice changes signify the advent of puberty.

Before puberty is reached certain physical signs of growing up are evident. One of the first is the pre-adolescent growth spurt, which is both sudden and distinct. This spurt may occur between the ages of eight and one half to eleven and one half, with marked individual variations. The long

H. Angelino, *Collier's Encyclopaedia.*

(Also recommended: *The Biology of Adolescence*, Katchadourian, H. 1977.)

bones of the arms and legs grow with great speed, gains in height of as much as eight or nine inches i year have been noted. Sex differences in height may seen at this time. Girls between the ages of eleven thirteen, for the only time in the growth span, are ta and slightly heavier than boys. There is also considera difference within each sex in the ages at which individ children reach their maximum growth. In both sexes th are individuals who are early, regular, or late matur Gain in weight occurs, but this, in general, does not k pace with height gains. After puberty is reached boc growth slows down; the annual increments become sma and smaller until the end of growth is reached.

Marked changes in facial proportions appear because the rapid growth in the length of the face as against width. The upper face develops faster than the lower, mouth widens, and the nose becomes longer and wic The individual loses his "baby-face" look.

Changes occur also in the hair and skin. The fine ha on the body become coarser and longer. In the male beard begins to grow and in a short time shaving becor a necessity. The downy vellus hair of the upper lip is placed by a larger, coarser, and darker hair. Both sexes disturbed by skin troubles—pimples, blackheads, and a being especially troublesome. Body odors are often qu strong, requiring special efforts on the part of both ado cents and parents to overcome this glandular problem.

In both boys and girls the voice undergoes change duri adolescence, becoming lower in pitch and more melodio This change is much more pronounced in boys than in gi causing a boy considerable embarrassment when his vo gets out of control, as it is likely to do quite often with warning. This situation lasts for a year or so while t change is being effected.

Awkwardness is quite common in adolescence. Wh growth in size and strength occur in spurts the individ experiences some difficulty in coordination. He will need make some new adjustments to this change and to acqu new controls and new coordinations. This is not alwa easy, particularly since people may make tactless remar about his size and his awkward actions or may ridicule a laugh at him because his trousers are always too short his hands and feet are always getting in each other's wa The resulting embarrassment and self-consciousness c serve to make the adolescent oversensitive to his growi body and poor coordination and perpetuate his feelings inadequacy. It takes some time to adjust to sudden a rapid growth, and understanding and sympathy on t part of adults will go a long way to help the adolesce through this difficult period.

Gains in strength are noted for both sexes during pub cence. Girls reach their maximum strength more quick than boys, but the latter will soon acquire a strength a vantage over girls because of anatomical and physiologic differences and because of cultural factors demandi strength and athletic skill in boys. Good motor ability ar skills are most important for boys at this time, for the constitute a major part of their feelings of adequacy ar masculinity and have an added prestige value in their rel tions with age mates. Size and strength are important con ponents for adequate social and emotional adjustment, an the boy who lacks these qualities is likely to experien many frustrations in his attempts to achieve success an popularity among his friends.

APPENDIX D.

FORM SENT TO EACH OF THE DIRECTORS OF EDUCATION OF THE FOUR PROVINCES, IN ORDER TO PROVIDE INFORMATION ON THEIR RESPECTIVE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SERVICES.

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

KING GEORGE V AVENUE • DURBAN, NATAL 4001

TELEPHONE: 352461 TELEGRAMS: "UNIVERSITY"

_____

_____

_____

Dear Sir/Madam

I am presently writing a thesis on school counselling and should be extremely grateful if you would assist me in obtaining part of the information I require.

The Director of Education in Natal has approved my research project.

Please would you be good enough to answer the questions on ... the enclosed sheet and return it to me.

Any extra information on the organization or provision of pupil counselling in schools in your area would be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Ida L Ezekowitz (Mrs)

University Co-Supervisor:
Dr B A Dobie
Department of Education
University of Natal
Durban

... Enclosure

July 1978

INFORMATION ON THE PROVISION OF A COUNSELLING SERVICE FOR PUPILS

Name of Province or Area _____

1) Please estimate the number of teacher-counsellors in full-time employment in your area. _____

2) How many teachers are in employment in the schools concerned? _____

3) Do you consider the provision of teacher-counsellors to be adequate?

_____

4) What are the minimum qualifications required for teacher-counsellors in your area?

_____

5) Could you give some idea of the range of qualifications held by teacher-counsellors?

_____

_____

) Is a syllabus presented for use by teacher-counsellors?

_____

_____

) Does group counselling form a regular part of the counselling service, or is the counselling mainly of individuals?

_____

) Would it be true to say that in your area, the counselling service operates towards the ends of (a) vocational, (b) personal and (c) group counselling?

_____

) To what extent are teacher-counsellors in your area supervised, e.g. by Inspectors?

_____

_____

Could you provide any other information on the policy or operation of the counselling service in your area.

_____

_____

APPENDIX E.

MORAL PREPAREDNESS IN THE TRANSVAAL: EXTRACT FROM CIRCULAR MINUTE 136 OF 1977.

2.2.4 Moral Preparedness

2.2.4.1 Purposes

To stimulate the pupils' interest through studying and group discussions and to offer them the opportunity of formulating their own point of view with regard to matters which lie outside the curriculum but which are of great importance to them.

2.2.4.2 Staff members responsible for the component

Suitable staff members appointed by the principal.

2.2.4.3 Organization during the period per week allocated to the component

This is left to the principal, but experience has shown that most success is achieved when one period per week is allocated to each standard separately.

9/...

The best results are obtained when a theme is studied by the pupils beforehand, the discussion then opened by the teacher or a pupil before the whole group, the theme then discussed in smaller groups, with a final report back to the whole group.

2.2.4.4 Approach

The approach should be to involve each pupil by means of active participation and to guide him to an own point of view based on an objective consideration of all the facts.

2.2.4.5 Contents of the component

(a) Citizenship

Junior secondary phase

(i) South Africa

Its extent, beauty and riches

How its peoples have proved and can prove their devotion to South Africa through service

Healthy patriotism.

(ii) The official emblems of the Republic of South Africa

(a) The national flag

(b) The national anthem

(c) The coat of arms

The composition, contents, meaning, and use.

(iii) Our national festive days

Historical connection

Suitable ways of celebration.

(iv) The strategic position of South Africa with regard to Africa and the rest of the world.

(v) People who have rendered important service to South Africa

The characteristics which brought them greatness.

(vi) Our best-known monuments.

Symbolical and historical significance

Maintenance

The value of monuments.

Senior secondary phase

(i) The population composition of South Africa

Mutual ties

Demands of the population composition on the inhabitants

The importance of good relationships among the various population groups and how these relationships may be brought about

The value of mutual interest and understanding.

(ii) Rules and laws in the family, the school, the team, the group, the community, and the State

Function, origin and value of rules and laws.

(iii) The Bantu

The various ethnic groups

Their inheritance and their task

Tribal customs and traditions and the inculcation thereof on the Bantu youth

Problems caused by detribalization

11/...

Educational and medical facilities for the Bantu

The Bantu's contribution to the prosperity of South Africa

The aspirations of the Bantu

(Schools may dilate on these themes with regard to Indians/Asians and Coloureds)

(iv) What we inherit and what we bequeath

(v) The organization of the defence force

(vi) The rights, duties and privileges of a citizen of South Africa

(vii) The right to vote and what an election comprises.

(b) Human relationships

Junior secondary phase

(i) Good manners as a basic for sound relationships

Their origin, function and value

Good manners in specific situations, e.g. in introductions, use of the telephone, in public places and public vehicles

Modern tendencies and their causes

(ii) The group as phenomenon

Its nature and essence

The family as primary group

Ties which bind and factors which divide

Rules and discipline within the group

Leadership within the group

Ideals and tasks for youth groups.

(iii) The Bible, religion, the family, the church, the nation, the cultural community, and friends as stabilizing and directive factors in the life of a young person.

Senior secondary phase

(i) The young person (teenager)

Basic characteristics

Urge towards independence

Grouping

Significance and importance of close friendship

Relationship with parents, adults, the opposite sex

The teenager and religion

Contribution to serving the community and the nation, and preservation of norms

Deviating tendencies and their causes

The abuse of alcohol, drugs and music

Prevention

Rendering aid to those who have strayed.

(ii) Marriage

Marriage readiness

Marriage laws

The choice of a marriage partner

Factors which stabilize a marriage

Results of dissolution

The family as foundation for a basically sound nation

Caring for and educating children

Parents-in-law and grand-parents

Planning of finances, holidays, leisure time and family activities.

(iii) International relationships

The interdependance of nations

Requirements for sound relationships

Factors which cause troubled relationships

Nationalism and inter-nationalism

South Africa's duty towards Africa and the rest of the world.

(c) Values in life

Junior secondary phase

(i) Authority and freedom

All authority comes from God, and the person in authority remains responsible to Him.

The place and function of authority in the life of each person at every stage

Gradual development towards independence

Responsibility in accepting independence.

Freedom and limitations from inside and outside

My freedom and that of others

Duty and freedom

14/...

Freedom as the fruit of maturity and restraint

Senior Secondary phase

(i) Personal problems

Problems as a common occurrence in the life of every person

Imaginary and real problems

The formative value of problems

The healing value of assisting with the problems of others

Solving problems by means of:

sober thought

analysis of the facts

obtaining advice

positive action

a cheerful approach

(ii) Attitude towards life

As determining factor in every field

The Christian philosophy of life as embodied in

our family life;

our communal life;

education;

our legislation;

our politics;

Western culture;

our history, present and future striving

(iii) The democratic and the totalitarian systems of government

Communism:

Its views on private initiative, personal rights and religion

Propaganda methods

Communism in practice

Danger to South Africa

Preventing and combating Communism by means of the safeguarding and retaining of democracy through the application of the Christian principles

Necessity of knowledge and understanding of public and international matters.

2.2.5 Physical Activities for girls

2.2.5.1 Purpose:

To acquaint pupils with the basic knowledge and skills with regard to these activities, and to guide them to be able to improvise resistance against exigencies which arise in practical life

2.2.5.2 The approach will be to enable the pupils to obtain the necessary knowledge and skills by means of practical and active participation in problematic situations which confront them.

2.2.5.3 Aids:

Seeing that the pupils are prepared especially with a view to unforeseen emergency situations, the emphasis should fall on improvisation, in other words on making use of what is immediately available.

2.2.5.4 The various activities: (As in Manuals for the Implementation of Youth Preparedness. December, 1972):

(a) Fire-fighting: See Manual B Page 8

(b) First Aid: See Manual C Page 15

(c) Road use : See Manual D Page 34

(d) Care of vehicles: See Manual D Page 34

(e) Home nursing: See Manual E Page 63

(f) Self-defence: See Manual F (See Circular Minute 93 of 1975)

(g) Marching exercises: See Manual G Page 71

(h) Shooting: At own discretion : See Manual H, Page 83

(i) Other activities the school wishes to add, e.g., club work, community singing, group games, etc.

2.2.5.5 Allocation of periods

(a) In co-educational schools the girls must devote the two periods which the boys devote to the cadet programme, to Physical Activities. Such schools may extend the programme at their own discretion to include community singing, group games, club work, etc.

(b) The table below indicates the compulsory activities for girls and the suggested minimum number of half-hour periods per year:

	Minimum number of half-hour periods per year				
tivity	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
re-fighting	6	6	-	-	-
rst aid	9	9	6	-	-
ad use	6	3	-	-	-
re of Vehicles	3	6	6	-	-
me nursing	-	-	-	12	12
lf-defence	-	-	12	12	12
ooting	-	-	According to circumstances		
rching exercises	6	6	6	6	6
tal	30	30	30	30	30

2.3 Special schools

2.3.1 The emergency plan:

See chapter 60 of the Manual for School Organisation.

2.3.2 Tutorship work:

As for secondary schools

2.3.3 Vocational guidance:

2.3.3.1 Staff members responsible

The head of department: educational guidance or another staff member appointed by the principal.

2.3.3.2 Duties of the responsible staff member:

(a) Assists the pupils during the orientation period in exercising their choice;

(b) orientates the pupils with regard to the following:

(i) The demands made on the worker in the work situation;

(ii) the worker's contribution to the prosperity of the country;

(iii) factors which ensure success for the worker;

(iv) assisting the individual pupil to obtain employment.

2.3.4 Moral Preparedness

2.3.4.1 Objective, staff members responsible, organization, and approach

As for the secondary school.

2.3.4.2 Contents of the component

Orientation years:

(a) South Africa

Its extent, beauty and riches.

How its people have proved and may prove their devotion to South Africa through their service.

(b) The official emblems of the Republic of South Africa

(i) the national flag

(ii) the national anthem

(iii) the coat of arms

The compilation, contents, meaning, and use of these emblems.

(c) Our national festive days

Historical connection

Suitable ways of celebration,

(d) Good manners as a foundation for sound relationship

Good manners in specific situations, e.g. in introductions, use of the telephone in public places and public transport.

(e) People who have made important contributions in serving South Africa

The characteristics which brought them greatness.

(f) Our best-known monuments representative of both language groups

Historical meaning

Maintenance.

Third and subsequent years

(a) The keys to success in life

(b) Authority and freedom

The divine institution of authority

Gradual growth to independence

Responsibility

My freedom and that of others

Duty and freedom.

(c) Modern youth

Things which may keep our youth healty and firm

How we may assist those who have strayed.

(d) The population composition of South Africa

The importance of sound relationships, and how everyone may assist in bringing them about.

(e) The right to vote

How an election takes place.

(f) My rights, privileges, and duties as a citizen.

(g) Financial matters

The art of buying

The necessity of saving

Institutions where savings may be invested

Concepts such as credit, cheque, savings account, hire purchase

Insurance

Housing and how it may be obtained.

(h) Married life

Readiness for marriage

The choice of a marriage partner

Factors which stabilize a marriage

Whom to consult if problems occur.

2.3.5 Physical Activities

2.3.5.1 Purpose, approach, and aids

As for secondary school

2.3.5.2 Allocation of periods

(a) The table below indicates the compulsory activities for girls and the suggested minimum number of periods per year

	Orientation years	Other years
Fire-fighting	8	4
First aid	10	-
Road use	6	-
Care of vehicles	-	6
Home nursing	-	8
Self-defence	-	6
* Marching exercises	6	6
Total	30	30

* Other activities which the school wishes to add, e.g. club work, community singing, group games, etc.

APPENDIX F.

DIRECTIVE FOR GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SUBMITTED TO TEACHER-COUNSELLORS IN NATAL IN 1971.

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YEAR PLAN FOR TEACHER COUNSELLORS

FOR REGULAR ATTENTION

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3. IMPLEMENTATION OF TESTING PROGRAMME
4. UP-DATING OF CAREER INFORMATION
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6. FOLLOW-UP OF SCHOOL LEAVERS
7. REFERRALS
8. FOLLOW-UP OF PUPILS WITH PROBLEMS
9. FOLLOW-UP OF UNDER-ACHIEVERS, ESPECIALLY AFTER EVALUATIONS
10. ATTENDANCE : TRUANTS, SICK ROOM ABSCONDERS
11. STAFF LIAISON
12. PARENTAL CONTACT

TERM 1	TERM 2	TERM 3	TERM 4
Collate records of new pupils. Open Std 6 guidance files. Update all guidance files. Forward files for transferred pupils. Check correct placement of pupils in practical course. Interview Std 10's. Nursing Applications for first intake next year. Update careers information, also for library. (order new handbooks, etc.) Notify students of closing dates for applications to Universities, Technikons, Teacher Training Colleges, Technical Colleges, etc. and to Hostels. Check test equipment. Plan testing programme.	1. Interview Std 10's. 2. Notify students of closing dates for applications to Universities, Technikons, Teacher Training Colleges, Technical Colleges, etc. and to Hostels. 3. Notify students of closing dates for Bursary and other applications. 4. Check correct placement of pupils in Std 6-8. (Subject choice and achievement). 5. Arrange visits of liaison officers. 6. Organise a Careers Evening/ Week.	1. Notify students of closing dates for applications to Universities, Technikons, Teacher Training Colleges, Technical Colleges, etc. and to Hostels. 2. Notify students of rules pertaining to bursary, and other, applications. 3. Discuss subject choice in Std 7. 4. 31 August: Order test material for following year. (The Director of Education : Attention: Principal School Psychologist : Guidance, P/B 9044, P.M.B., 3200). Order guidance files from: Provincial Stores, Mayor's Walk, P.M.B., 3201. 5. 31 October: Forward Ed. Lab. Cards to Department of Manpower Utilisation. See Natal Schools' Handbook, Chapter E.	1. Discuss final course selection with Std 7's. 2. Visit Feeder Schools. 3. Supply relevant information re. Promotions/Retardations 4. Update all records. 5. Review year's activities. 6. Plan for next year.

APPENDIX G.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION WITH THE TEACHER-COUNSELLORS BY THE WRITER OF EACH OF THE TWELVE SCHOOLS.

Questions for Discussion

1. How many pupils have you interviewed in the period from January 1977 - June 1977?

2. How many pupils approached you directly for help re their problems?

3. How many pupils with serious problems have you referred for further intervention?

4. Describe the nature of the problems of pupils you have interviewed.

   e.g. Personal
   Home
   Inter-personal relationships
   Health
   Educational difficulties
   Economic
   Death of Parent
   Unemployment

   and other problems.

5. How many pupils have you interviewed re Vocational Guidance?

APPENDIX H.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO FIRST YEAR STUDENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NATAL AND THE NATAL TECHNIKON IN 1980.

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

RESEARCH ON SCHOOL COUNSELLING

Dear Student,

I would appreciate your assistance. I am doing research into school counselling. Would you be so kind as to answer the following questions. Your answers will help me to evaluate the counselling service in Secondary High Schools in Natal and other provinces. All information you give will be treated in the strictest confidence.

I.L. EZEKOWITZ (MRS.)

1. What year did you leave school? 19

2. Name of school. (This will be coded not identified.)

.....

3. Are you

Male	
Female	

Indicate with a X

4. Did the Teacher-Counsellor help you with the choice of your career?

Yes		No	

(a) By discussing your interests and aptitudes?

Yes		No	

(b) and by referring to Aptitude or Interest Tests you had done?

Yes		No	

(c) By referring to your examination marks in each relevant subject?

Yes		No	

(d) By only discussion with you about your own ambitions for your future?

Yes		No	

(e) By supplying information to you on various careers?

Yes		No	

(f) Did you know what course you wanted to do at University and just required more information?

Yes		No	

	Yes	No
Adjustment to your own illness?		
Adjustment to economic difficulties?		
Adjustment to new school		

Other Reasons. State Briefly

.....

.....

.....

GROUP COUNSELLING

i.e. Lectures given to you by your Teacher-Counsellor or visiting lecturer on various topices concerning "Life Ahead". Did any of these lecturers cover the following topics?

	Yes	No
1. How to manage your finances at university.		
2. Information re Family Life		
Sex Education		
Marriage		
Divorce		
3. Discussion on Drugs		
Alcoholism		
Venereal Disease		
Other Topics		
4. Self-Esteem and Priorities		
Did the above information prove useful?		

APPENDIX I.

THE DRAFT PROPOSAL FOR THE NATIONAL SCHOOL GUIDANCE SYLLABUS BY THE SUBCOMMITTEE OF THE WORK COMMITTEE GUIDANCE 007

Source: Niels Lindhard

National School Guidance Syllabus

First Draft
5 pages

Niels Lindhard
24/10/1980

1. SELF - AWARENESS

1.1 The need to know oneself

Self-awareness and social skills
Self-awareness and school performance
Self-awareness and careers choice

1.2 What one needs to know

Personality - how others see a person
Performance - proven ability
Potential - unused ability
Permanence - what one can change
Motivation - values and needs
Maturity - coping with life
Identity - masculine or feminine
Identity - cultural inheritance
Identity - religious beliefs
Uniqueness - how one is different from and similar to others

1.3 How do you learn about yourself?

1.4 How will you cope in new situations?

Competence and confidence as skills learned from self-awareness

2. SOCIAL AWARENESS

2.1 The individual and his social skills

(a) Getting on with other people

Principles of good citizenship

(b) Earning the respect of others

Important social relationships (family, friends, teachers and others)

(c) Making others understand us

Communication skills - speaking, listening, body language

(d) Keeping informed

Communications media - radio, TV, newspapers, books

(e) Initiating group action

Principles of leadership

(f) Living an active life

Using leisure time

(g) Planned use of money

Budgetting, saving, buying, insurance, investment

(h) Using social stimulants

Use and misuse of smoking, drinking and drugs

(i) Meeting the opposite sex

Education for sound sexual relations

(j) Establishing a family

Marriage, children and family planning

(k) Making decisions wisely

Principles of decision-making for life-style and career and for coping with expected and unexpected change

(l) Living without choice

Survival of the unemployed and the underemployed

3. EDUCATIONAL AWARENESS

3.1 Advantages of education

(a) Motivation to perform
(b) Education pays
(c) Transmits knowledge, culture, religion
(d) Provides coping skills: learning skills, social skills, communication skills, work skills, and decision-making skills

3.2 Methods of education

Study methods, reading skills, note-taking, homework, examinations and motivation
Choice of subjects
Discipline
Attendance
Behaviour
Library use

3.3 Advantages of guidance

Creates awareness
- Self-awareness
- Social awareness
- Educational awareness
- Vocational awareness

Study skills
Coping skills
- See under Social Awareness

Maturity
Aptitude tests
Careers choice
Further study guidance

3.4 Further Education

Technical education for practical people
Going to university or study at UNISA
How to plan, how to succeed
Teacher training - where to study
Other vocational education at colleges, agricultural, theological, Police college, etc.
Entrance requirements
Problems of transition from school to higher education

4. VOCATIONAL AWARENESS

4.1 Basic work ethos

(a) What is work?
(b) Why do we work?
(c) Human needs and work satisfaction
(d) Work skills we learn at school
(e) How long should you stay at school?

4.2 Working in South Africa

(a) The South African economy and its main sectors
(b) Where do people work in South Africa?
(c) Job opportunities - demand and supply
(d) Manpower problems can increase your opportunities
(e) What jobs are there?
    Jobs subdivided by education
    Jobs subdivided by job level
    Jobs subdivided by activity
    Jobs subdivided by workplace
(f) What is a job?
    Job content and job descriptions

4.3 Job information

(a) What do you need to know?
(b) Where to find reading matter
(c) Where to get guidance
(d) Where to see a workplace

4.4 Educational information

See Educational Awareness

4.5 Choosing a career

(a) What do you want most?
    Values and work satisfaction
(b) What can you do best?
    Abilities and career choice
(c) Choosing your first job
    Methods of exploration
    Going to guidance
    Having a test
(d) Women at work

4.6 Deciding on a career

See Decision Methods under Social Awareness

4.7 National Service and careers

4.8 Finding a job and getting a job

(a) Finding job vacancies
(b) Writing an application
(c) Having an interview
(d) Selection tests and employment forms

4.9 Starting a job and keeping a job

(a) School-to-work problems
(b) The employer's expectations
(c) The worker's rights
(d) Trade Unions as go-betweens

4.10 Improving the job

(a) Planning for promotion
(b) The successful worker

4.11 Being unemployed

Self help and other help for unemployed and underemployed